THE NEWSPAPER AND PERIODICAL PUBLISHING INDUSTRY IN ILLINOIS FROM 1880 TO 1915

BY

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THESIS

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I HEREBY RECOMMEND THAT THE THESIS PREPARED UNDER MY SUPERVISION BY Frederic Arthur Russell

ENTITLED The Newspaper and Periodical Publishing Industry in Illinois from 1880 to 1915

BE ACCEPTED AS FULFILLING THIS PART OF THE REQUIREMENTS FOR THE DEGREE OF Doctor of Philosophy in Economics

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PREFACE

The newspaper and periodical industry might be regarded from any one of several points of view, as social, cultural, political, etc., but in this treatment it is approached from the economic side, the aim being to bring into prominence the development of the industry as a medium through which many of our citizens gained a livelihood. This method of approach has made it seem best to omit or treat lightly some phases of the industry which would well repay a more intensive study.

The emphasis upon newspapers and the apparent slighting of magazines is intentional. If the nature of the data had been such as to make feasible their complete separation, no discussion of magazines would have been attempted. Only sufficient is included to give the entire treatment a semblance of consistency.

Much of the statistical material has been taken from Ayer's Newspaper Annual. While compiled primarily for the use of advertisers seeking a medium of publicity, this directory has created for itself a wider demand and has attained so high a degree of reliability that conclusions based on figures gleaned from it may be accepted as fairly accurate. The writer owes the Chicago Tribune his thanks for much information of value, Business Manager Field having been particularly obliging in the matter of furnishing facts about the newspaper which was taken as a type of the largest dailies in the state.

This study begins with the year 1880 because the period up to that date had been carefully gone over by two other writers, Professor F.W.Scott of the University of Illinois and Mr. S.N.D.

North of the Census Bureau.[1]

Throughout the thesis, the writer's aim has been to bring out the fact of change--probably of progress--which has characterized the history of the industry in Illinois.

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[1]Professor Scott's thesis, published in 1910, was entitled "Newspapers and Periodicals of Illinois 1814-1879." Mr. North was in charge of the elaborate Special Report on Newspapers and Periodicals which was a part of the Tenth Census (1880).

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MAPS AND CHARTS.

CHAPTER I

General Economic Changes, 1880-1915.

Because of their intimate connection with the development of the newspaper and periodical industry, and because of the frequency with which reference to them will be made in subsequent pages, some of the economic changes taking place in the state during the period under review are mentioned in this chapter.

Population

The number, distribution and occupation of the population are important factors in determining the number, distribution, circulation and character of the state's publications.

1. Numbers: First among the changes in the state's population is that of numbers, a steady and rapid growth having been maintained. The census gives the total population of Illinois as follows:[1]

1880.. 3,077,871	1900.. 4,821,550
1890.. 3,826,351	1910.. 5,638,591

2. Distribution: There has been a decided movement of the population towards the cities, the percentage of the total population living in places of 2500 inhabitants or over having more than doubled since 1880. The figures are:

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[1]Thirteenth Census, Vol. II., pp. 484-502.

1880.. 30.1 percent[2]

1890.. 44.7 percent[3]

1900.. 54.3 percent[4]

1910.. 61.7 percent[4]

For Illinois, the concentration of population in the cities was shown in the growth of Chicago and Cook county chiefly. The gain for the entire state from 1880 to 1910 was 2,560,720, of which 1,797,709 or 70.2 percent was in Cook county. This is the outstanding fact of the population movement during the thirty-year period. The twelve counties containing the fifteen largest cities outside of Cook county gained 324,821, leaving 408,190 to be apportioned among the other eighty-nine counties. Of these eighty-nine, fifteen suffered an absolute loss in population.

A glance at the map on the following page shows that the greatest gains were made in those counties containing or near large cities, as Chicago, Peoria, St. Louis, Rock Island, Moline, Springfield, and Rockford. Two or three coal counties in the southern part of the state also show some increase in population.

3. Occupation: This movement towards the cities has been accompanied by a change in the occupations of the people, the proportion engaged in manufacturing and mechanical

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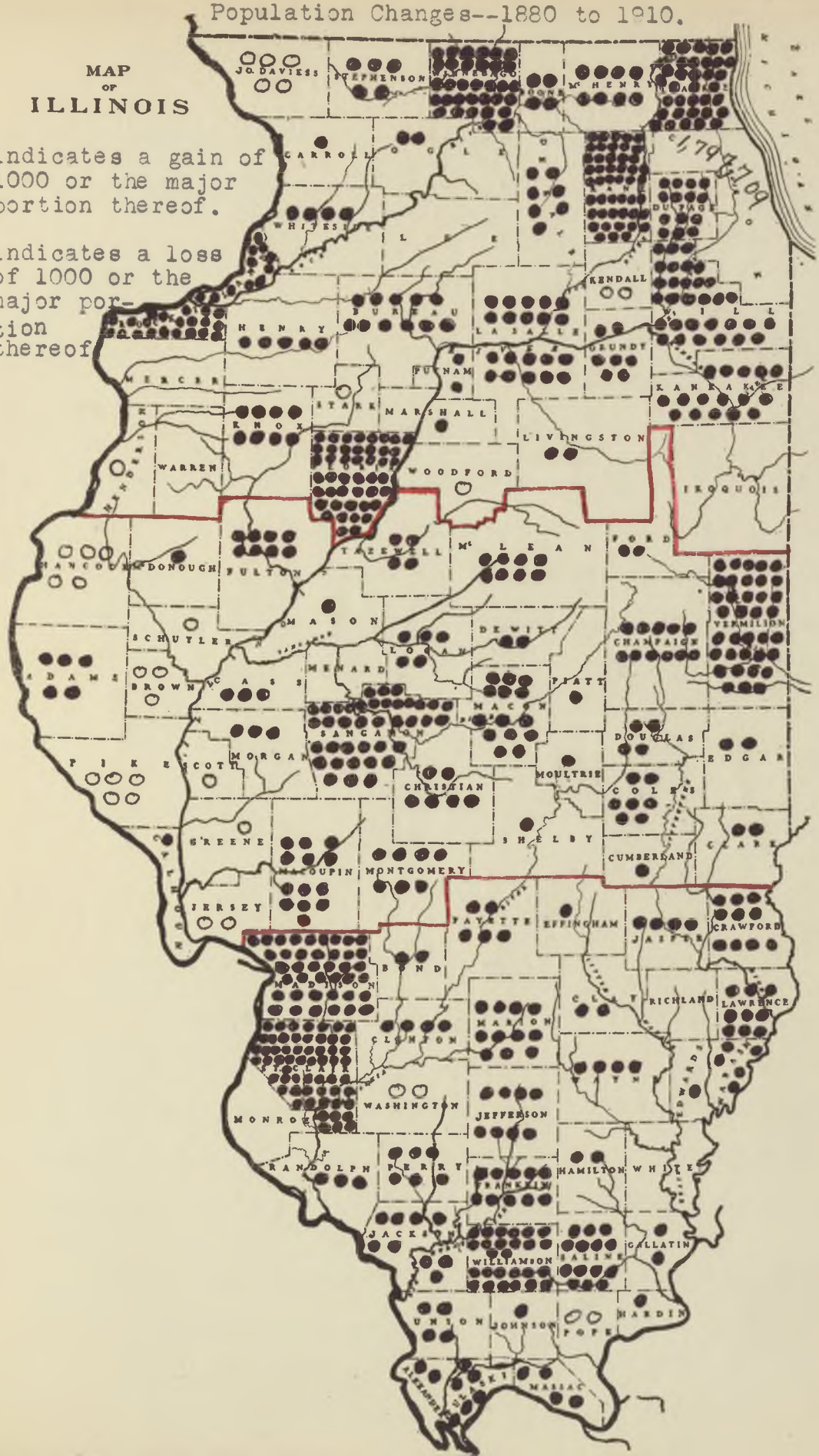
[2]Eleventh Census, Vol. I., pp. 378-392.

[3]Thirteenth Census, Abstract, p. 570.

[4]Thirteenth Census, Vol. II., pp. 484-502.

MAP I.

Population Changes--1880 to 1910.



pursuits having increased greatly. The figures follow:

Year	No. engaged in agriculture	Percent of pop.	No. engaged in mechanical and manufacturing pursuits	Percent of total pop.
1880	437,138[5]	14.2	204,388[5]	6.6
1910	451,289[6]	8.0	750,430[6]	13.3

4. Literacy: As the circulation of newspapers and periodicals depends in part upon the ability of the people to read them, figures on literacy are pertinent. The percentage of illiterates in the total population of Illinois has steadily declined, in spite of the counter influence of Cook county.

Year	No. of illiterates	Percent of total pop.
1880[7]	145,397	4.72
1890[7]	152,634	3.98
1900[7]	157,958	3.27
1910[8]	168,294	2.98

Forms of Capital

1. Transportation Facilities: The growth in number of miles of track for steam and electric roads only partly shows the improvement made in this means of transportation. The speed and size of trains, together with their greater frequency, count as much but are difficult to indicate statisti-

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[5] Special Report on Occupations, Twelfth Census, pp.88-89.

[6] Thirteenth Census, Vol. IV, p. 97.

[7] Twelfth Census, Vol. II., p. 473.

[8] Thirteenth Census, Vol. II., pp. 484-503.

cally.

In 1880 there were in Illinois between 7,500 and 7,600 miles of steam railroad tracks? In 1913 there were in Illinois 12,012.7 miles of steam railroad tracks.[10]

The growth of the electric railway, urban and interurban, has been largely within our period of study and even more rapid than that of the steam railways. In 1890 there were but 31.88 miles of track over which electric cars were run.[11] In 1880 there were probably none. In 1912 there were within the borders of the state 3,086.04 miles of electric railways.[12]

The improvement of the country roads, while difficult of statistical presentation, is sufficiently well known to make it evident that this has been an important factor in better transportation. With the advent of automobiles the movement for good roads has received a new impetus so that these two factors, better roads and more automobiles, have served to facilitate transportation greatly in sections of the state not reached by electric or steam railways.

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[9]Poor's Manual of the Railroads of the United States for 1880 gives the figures as 7,578.49 (p.725) and the Special Report on Transportation on Land of the Eleventh Census gives it as 7,562.39. This data was perhaps gathered somewhat earlier than that in Poor's Manual.

[10]The Interstate Commerce Commission's Report on Statistics of Railways in the United States for 1913, p. 9.

[11]Eleventh Census. Special Report on Transportation on Land, p. 689.

[12]Special Report of United States Census Bureau on General Electric Light and Power Stations and Street and Electric Railways, 1912, p. 202.

2. Better Means of Communication: While better train service and other improvements in transportation facilities have been utilized as aids to communication, there have been other agencies operating toward the same end. Prominent among these are the telegraph and telephone.

The telegraph was well known in 1880, but its scope has been much enlarged by the addition of more stations and operators, and a lowering of rates.

It is the telephone, however, which has undergone the greatest development in the past thirty-five years. Invented but three or four years prior to 1880, by that date it had been introduced into nine localities in Illinois, each locality having its own little system, unconnected with the others.[13]

In 1912 there were in Illinois 1,689,074 miles of telephone wires, and 807,253 telephones.[14] Even within the ten

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[13]While exact figures for this period are difficult to obtain, in the Tenth Census, Vol. IV, pp. 18-23, the following companies are listed as operating in Illinois, together with the number of miles of wire owned by each. The small number of miles of wire indicates that the systems were largely local.

Alton	267	miles
Bloomington	100	"
Chicago	1,000	"
Freeport	30	"
Galesburg	10	"
Jacksonville	35	"
Joliet	85	"
Morrison	106	"
Peoria	100	"
Total	1,733	miles

[14]Report on Telephones and Telegraphs. Department of Commerce of the Bureau of the Census, 1912, p. 15.

years previous there had been very rapid growth both in miles of wire and number of phones, indicating that perhaps the 1912 figures, the latest obtainable, fail to show the present situation. The figures are:

1902	428,301 miles of wire	221,008 phones
1907	786,948 miles of wire	558,585 phones

The number of telephones per 1000 inhabitants is also increasing rapidly.

1902	44	1907	101	1912	139

The movement towards extending the rural telephone service has also been marked.

The wireless telegraph, brought into service in 1901, has been a prominent factor in obtaining news, especially from ships at sea.

The coöperation of the Post Office Department in facilitating communication has been important. In 1879 there were only five cities in Illinois that had free city delivery: Bloomington, Chicago, Peoria, Quincy and Springfield.[15] In July, 1915, there were 116 cities enjoying free delivery.[16]

The rural districts were not reached by the postal system until 1897, when rural free delivery was established. Five years later, in 1902, there were in operation 938 rural routes in Illinois.[17] These were confined to about half a dozen

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[15]Report of Postmaster General, 1879, p. 394.

[16]U. S. Official Postal Guide, July, 1915, pp. 508-513.

[17]Report of Postmaster General, 1902, p. 114.

counties. In 1915 every county in the state had five or more routes, the total number being 2,855.[18]

The reduction of the postage rate for second class mail matter, October 1, 1883, from two cents to one cent per pound was also a factor in stimulating the development of newspapers and periodicals.

3. Paper: Paper is the raw product of the greatest importance in the printing industry, and the conditions surrounding the purchase and use of it influence the kind and volume of printed matter.

As one writer puts it,[19] "The new-style presses, the stereotype plates, and the mechanical compositors neither alone nor together, however, would have made possible the newspaper as it exists had not the manufacturers of paper made wonderful progress. As late as 1862 the paper ordinarily used by newspapers cost 24 cents a pound."

Of course some of this high cost was due to transportation charges, but the economies of the modern paper mill had not been introduced.

The following figures give an excellent idea of the progress which has been made in the methods of manufacture:

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[18]U. S. Official Postal Guide, July, 1915, pp. 508-513.

[19]Given. Making a Newspaper, p. 17.

Prices of News Print per Pound[20]

1879	$.07 1/2	1899	$.02 1/4
1883	.06 1/4	1900	.03
1884	.05	1901	.02 1/2
1885	.04 3/4	1902	.02 3/4
1887	.04 1/2	1903	.02 3/4
1893	.03	1904	.02 3/4
1896	.02 3/4	1905	.02 1/2
1897	.02	1906	.026
1898	.02 1/2	1907	.029
		1908	.0275[21]

These figures show the steady decline in price from 1880 to about 1898, since which time there has been a slight tendency to raise the price. If further economies of production

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[20]Testimony of J. N. Abell, City Sales Manager for the J. W. Butler Paper Co., Chicago, in the U. S. Pulp and Paper Investigation Hearings, Vol. IV., p. 2,607.

[21]The following figures from another source (U. S. Pulp and Paper Investigation Hearings, Vol. V., p. 3,288.) purport to show the prices paid per pound for print paper by a New York daily for the years mentioned:

1880	6.9	cents	1890	3.4	cents	1900	1.8	cents
1881	6.46	"	1891	3.125	"	1901	1.8	"
1882	6.	"	1892	2.91	"	1902	1.9	"
1883	5.73	"	1893	2.75	"	1903	2.05	"
1884	5.5	"	1894	2.25	"	1904	2.	"
1885	5.2	"	1895	2.25	"	1905	2.	"
1886	4.77	"	1896	2.25	"	1906	2.	"
1887	4.15	"	1897	1.8	"	1907	2.	"
1888	4.	"	1898	1.8	"	1908	2.10	"
1889	3.875	"	1899	1.8	"			

have been effected, the manufacturers have been able to maintain the price in some way.

4. Other Changes: In the early 'nineties the typewriter was being introduced into the newspaper offices of the country, and now is almost universally used in the preparation of copy for the compositors.

There was at first some opposition to its introduction, even the compositors themselves complaining that it retarded their speed, as they could not find the place so easily after setting up a few words. But this argument was soon shattered, as it was discovered that the speed of hand compositors was increased ten to twenty percent by the use of the typewritten copy, while linotype operators could set twenty-five percent more, a very material saving of time.[22]

Then, too, the reporters and other writers were able to turn out their copy more rapidly, effecting a saving of time in the editorial rooms as well as in the mechanical department.

In the matter of power and its application to printing machinery there has been a wonderful development during the past thirty-five years.

The big newspaper presses in 1880 were run by steam power, applied through a medium of shafting, pulleys and belts.[23]

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[22]The Fourth Estate, August 23, 1894, p. 4.

[23]We read in The History of Fulton County, written in 1879, p. 994, that the Fulton Democrat was housed in a new building about that time. "Among the useful improvements introduced in the new office is a new steam engine, which furnishes ample power to run his presses."

Now they are operated by an elaborate system of electric motors, controlled by push buttons located at various points about the presses. A touch of the proper button will start, stop or regulate the speed of the press almost instantly, while the various units can be operated separately or in unison. If anything goes wrong, the machinery is stopped automatically. These motors are located in a pit underneath the press, doing away with the dangerous and troublesome belts and pulleys.

In the Electrical Review and Western Electrician; May 8, 1915, p. 851, the importance of and reasons for this change in motive power are set forth. "In no other industrial field requiring motive power has electric drive become more deservedly popular than in the printing trade. Printers were the first to appreciate the advantages of electricity, both for lighting and power, and there are few, if any, branches of industry in which greater advantages can be shown."

Electric driving is said to be far more economical than mechanical driving; and it is cleaner, produces better work and also increases the output per machine. The speed is steadier and can be regulated to suit the work.

Electric heat has also been applied in the printing industry, to heat linotype and monotype metal, glue pots and matrix dryers.

CHAPTER II

Technical Changes in the Industry

In the Composing Room

1. Typography: Although it has come gradually, there has been a marked change since 1880 in the ideals of typography in all classes of printing. So the newspaper or magazine of today is a very different appearing piece of reading matter than one printed thirty-five years ago.

We can trace this evolution in type faces, bearing in mind that only the best equipped shops kept abreast of the movement, leaving the establishments, in which the type was less used, to follow as the old type was worn out and replaced by new.

There have been two general periods in printing styles since 1880. The first was characterized by the use of a large number of type faces in all display work and title pages, apparently with the idea that several kinds of shaded and display type were necessary for effective presentation.[1] This was due in some measure to the "long-and-short-line" ideal held by compositors at this time. According to this standard, every line must be "centered", and as a usual thing the long and short lines were alternated. If the copy did not lend itself to this method of treatment in one series of type, a more condensed or extended face was called into use, the result being

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[1] Twelfth Census, Vol. IX., p. 1,008.

a great variety of type faces in one ad or job. As a part of this general period, coming in the latter 'eighties, there was much ornamentation with curiously twisted rules and similar devices.

The first half of the decade from 1880-1890 was characterized by light face type. In the second half, medium weight ornamented types came into use, together with a great variety of eccentric letters in which the inventiveness of the designer is very marked.

By 1890 the period of the purely ornamental and the fantastic came to an end in America and we see the first signs of the popular DeVinne[1'] series, the first effective factor which banished those ornate, pretty or ingenious types which had prevailed. From its introduction we date the commencement of that masculinity in commercial typography which still prevails.

Although the type faces themselves were growing more sensible, we still find in the 'nineties a liberal use of ornaments, large and small, light and dark, with no thought of harmony, either in shape or shade, with the accompanying type or with each other. The old "pointers" and similar simple ornaments were commonly used, often merely to fill out a line.

In book and job work particularly, and occasionally in advertisements, all through these first twenty years we find type faces patterned after ancient designs. These were sometimes artistic, but were often anything else, being copied after type faces used in England while the printing industry was under

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1' For explanation of technical terms see end of chapter.

something of a ban, so that printers had to make their own type after their own notions.

Beginning about 1902 the present vogue of rules and panels came in, and the change is very marked in the better publications of that time. This allowed a single series or family of type to be used for a complete ad or job. The ideal has been maintained down to the present time.

More attention has been given during the last decade to the designing of type faces, so that they have a greater range of usefulness. They are designed to look well in page form, in mass effects, and in single lines. "There is no purpose in typography that is not better served by our present types than by their predecessors."[2]

We can thus distinguish two distinct tendencies in typographic styles since 1880. The first was towards a more substantial, readable style of type; and the other was towards the use of fewer, but more harmonious, type faces.

These changes were inspired by motives other than the purely artistic. The new styles are truly more pleasing to the eye of printer and customer alike, but they also make for the production of printed matter at lower cost, to printer and customer alike.

In the first place, the types wear longer. In the

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[2]Discursions of a Retired Printer. The Inland Printer, Vol. 39, pp. 196- ; 353-355. Also, The Progress of a Quarter Century. F. J. Trezise, in The Inland Printer, Vol. 40: 67-69.

small shop, where the press runs are short, this item is not so important, but in the big plants the types wear out faster. "The hardest types soon wear out. When morning papers were printed direct from the type, it was often found necessary to renew the fonts after a few months of service. To jobbing type the damage by wear is even greater; the beauty of script and hair-line types is sometimes destroyed by one month of service."[3] And the stereotyping process adds nothing to the durability of types, it being very injurious. With the increase in number of large printing establishments, this item of durability became of greater importance and served to stimulate the demand for the substantial type faces.

In the second place, the plainer styles of types were better suited for quick, easy reading, which is a consideration in effective display. With the increase in the mass of reading matter, we read more hurriedly than our fathers, and the wise advertiser has learned this.

Still another reason for the greater uniformity of type faces recently is the fact that there are fewer type founders, the type founding industry being concentrated to a marked degree. In 1892 most of the large type founders and a number of the small ones, about twenty in all, were merged into what is now the American Type Founders Company. The American Type Foundry at Chicago is said to be "by far the

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[3]Theodore DeVinne. The Practice of Typography, p. 35.

largest type foundry in existence."[4] The result of this consolidation is evident in the specimen books of the American Type Founders Company, which in 1906 contained but 225 distinct faces, while the specimen books of the companies that were merged into this concern contained 750 distinct type faces.[5] And even yet the "tendency is to get down to fewer faces of certain approved designs."[6]

Before 1880 but one or two sizes of each style of letter was made. Now all type is cast in series from 6 to 72 point.[7] Not only that, but the new type faces are cast in families, the popular Cheltenham family being cast in twenty series.[8]

This enables the compositor to choose a type face adapted to the piece of copy he is engaged upon and still keep the entire job harmonious. Indeed, some large printing plants have only one or two families of type, although these are

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[4]National Printer-Journalist, Vol. 28, p. 58.

[5]Gress, American Handbook of Printing, p. 32.

[6]Letter from American Type Founders Company, under date of January 3, 1916.

[7]Gress, American Handbook of Printing, p. 17.

[8]Letter from American Type Founders Company, Jan. 3, 1916. The faces alluded to are: Cheltenham Bold, Cheltenham Bold Condensed, Cheltenham Bold Condensed Italic, Cheltenham Bold Extra Condensed, Cheltenham Bold Extra Condensed Title, Cheltenham Bold Extended, Cheltenham Bold Italic, Cheltenham Bold Outline, Cheltenham Bold Shaded, Cheltenham Extra Bold, Cheltenham Inline, Cheltenham Inline Extended, Cheltenham Extra Condensed, Cheltenham Italic, Cheltenham Medium, Cheltenham Medium Italic, Cheltenham Medium Expanded, Cheltenham Oldstyle, Cheltenham Oldstyle Condensed, Cheltenham Wide.

carried in all series and sizes.

About 1890 a revolution was effected in the measurement of type bodies. A uniform series of sizes, known as the point system, was introduced, displacing everywhere the earlier method by which each foundry used a different size of body. This radical change meant much to the printer, as it permitted the use of type of one foundry with that of another. In spite of this fact, the tendency towards the use of fewer type faces was marked, due to the causes just mentioned.

A minor tendency is discernible, particularly in the daily press. In 1880 the largest type in the papers was found in the advertisements, the headings over the reading matter being modest in size and the many-"decked" heads unknown. Now the front page blares with huge poster type, while the advertisements are set forth in a more quiet manner.

The reasons for this reversal of practice are not far to seek. The growth of large headlines over the news is due to the increasing number of street sales made by the daily papers. The eye of the passer-by must be caught. The shrinkage in the size of advertising display type is an accompaniment of the growing economic independence of the publishers. The publisher who feels that the advertisers must use his paper is in a position to dictate in some measure regarding the appearance of the publication. So it has come about that the more powerful newspapers and periodicals limit the size of the type used in the advertisements, for they can obtain all the advertising

they need even so. If they could obtain all the circulation they needed and still use small heads over the news, they would be glad to do so, but few big daily papers have reached that stage of independence.

In the small town conditions are reversed. The advertiser can dictate to the publisher, because the latter must have his support, whereas the number of readers is not increased a whit by the use of big headlines, for there are no street sales. Hence we find large type in the advertisements and small heads over the news matter.

In short, the publisher regards the use of very large type as an evil, to be tolerated only under economic pressure, and he accordingly avoids it when he can do so without loss of profits.

Another minor tendency in advertising typography is that towards the use of small type for the bulk of the advertisement, using large type only for the headings. This feature has become characteristic of the ads in the city dailies and magazines of the better class, and has come about for several reasons.

In the first place, the increased cost of space in many publications has led to economy in its use. In the second place, since the advent of the composing machine it has been cheaper for the publisher to set the body of the advertisement on the machine, which handles only the smaller sizes of type. In the third place, it has been proven to the advertisers that

advertisements so displayed bring results.

While the smaller journals have in some measure followed the fashion set by the city papers in this particular, we can see yet, in country papers, where space is cheap and type set by hand, an evident inclination to set every word of the advertisements in display type.

The lower price of type during the last decade or two has been another factor in the movement for a better style of typography. It is easier now to buy new type and to keep up-to-date.

During the decade 1890-1900 type-founding made remarkable progress in several of its branches. The Benton punch cutter, 1885, and the Barth type-casting machine, 1886, enabled the founder to dispense with much of the laborious and expensive detail connected with his calling, and to reduce materially the cost of type to the printer.[9] The Barth machine, casting 1000 types a minute, produces fifty percent more than the older machinery, besides doing more accurate work and permitting the use of a harder quality of metal.[10]

While these observations are general in character, they apply to Illinois as forcibly as to any state, for the printers of this state have always been among the leaders in their calling. Particularly is this true of the Chicago dailies. A comparison of them with other papers is sufficient

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[9] Twelfth Census, Vol. IX., p. 1,087.

[10] DeVinne, Practice of Typography, p. 27.

evidence of this, but testimony from reliable sources is not wanting.

In 1891 it was said, "The Chicago papers use the best styles of display type and have the most artistic advertising."[11] The same year George H. Saults, writing in the Inland Printer, said, "With the exception of certain papers in Chicago and Philadelphia, the advertisements in these papers, judged from a practical and business standpoint, present a sorry mess."[12] The Fourth Estate says in 1895, "The Chicago papers are well known to be the best printed in the country."[13] Alexander Spencer of Chicago writes in 1896, "In Chicago at least, however it may have been elsewhere, recent years have witnessed a gradual and persistent effort to improve the typographical appearance of the daily newspaper."[14] In 1898 a critic wrote regarding the Chicago dailies, "They are surely taken as a whole, the handsomest daily journals in America."[15]

The newspapers in the smaller cities and villages lag far behind the Chicago papers in the matter of keeping abreast of the type fashions, but they compare favorably with the papers of other states printed in communities of equal size. Many smaller plants are regularly equipped with the

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[11] Printers Ink, 1891, Vol. IV., No. 2, p. 88.

[12] Quoted in Printer's Ink, Vol. IV., No. 2, p. 99.

[13] The Fourth Estate, May 30, 1895, p. 16.

[14] Typographical Journal, Feb. 1, 1896, p. 85.

[15] Armstrong, F. LeRoy, "The Daily Papers of Chicago," in Chautauquan, Vol. 27, pp. 538-545.

cast-off type and machinery of the larger plants, so in a state where the larger plants were promptly discarding out-of-date equipment the smaller shops could secure better equipment.

As to the magazines and class journals, most of them are printed in Chicago, frequently in job printing establishments. The Chicago book and job printing plants are among the best in the country and the work they have done on magazines and class journals is excellent.

We may therefore conclude that the newspapers and periodicals of Illinois have joined heartily in the typographical advance made during the past thirty-five years.

2. Make-up: In the make-up of all classes of newspapers and periodicals one general tendency is discernible --the separation of the advertising from the pure reading matter. Back in the 'eighties much of the front pages of even the Chicago dailies was given over to display advertising. But as the papers grew more independent financially they denied the advertiser some privileges in the matter of make-up as they did in the matter of typography. At the present time the necessity of using the great city dailies is so keenly felt by the advertiser that he accepts almost any conditions laid down by the publisher as to the location of his advertisement. In the smaller papers advertisers are conciliated by choice positions at the expense of the paper's appearance.

The trade and other class journals are inclined to mingle reading matter and advertisements rather indiscriminately.

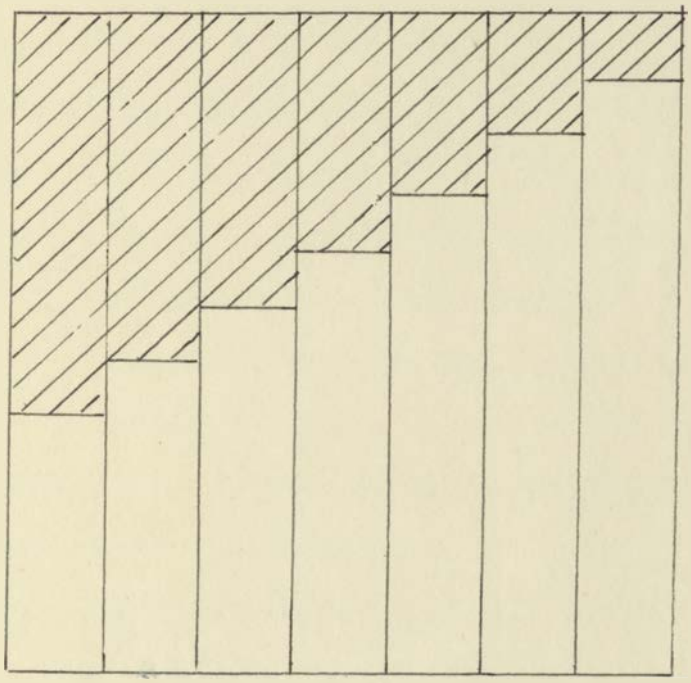
In this class of publication more than any other is it true that the advertisements are real "news", and for this reason the distinction is not closely observed. Improvements in the science or profession to which the publication is devoted are quite likely to be displayed as effectively in the advertisements as in the reading matter.

The magazines, more than any other class, have separated the two kinds of matter. With the improvements in the art of ad writing, and the aid of illustrations, the advertisements have become in many cases interesting reading. Especially is this true of the magazine advertisements, which are designed to be read more at leisure than those in the dailies.

A compromise between advertiser and publisher is effected in some cases by the device of allowing a column or so of reading matter to occupy the center of a page with advertising on each side, thereby giving the advertiser position "next to reading matter". The reading matter is in many cases the conclusion of some article begun on one of the first pages, which are nearly always kept free from advertising.

Another ingenious device employed by some publishers is the pyramid form of make-up, which permits the advertisements each to be "next to reading matter" and yet not occupy such a very choice position after all. The accompanying diagram, representing a page of a seven-column paper, illustrates the scheme, which many advertisers have become familiar with

and now frame their contracts for space in such a way as to avoid it.



The shaded portion represents reading matter on a seven-column page. The white space is advertising matter.

A tendency not so general as the one just mentioned is that towards a more symmetrical arrangement of the matter on the page. Not until about 1900 do we see many signs of progress along this line. At about this time, on the better papers, an effort began to be made to balance the two sides of the page, with a result much more pleasing to the eye. Other systems of make-up have been employed, but they were systems and not the result of chance.

A third change has taken place in the make-up of city papers and some magazines, due to the increasing importance of street sales. Thirty years ago the news was grouped, under small heads, into departments under such heads as Washington,

Foreign, Criminal, Railroads, Crop Reports, Casualties, The City, Literature, The Home, Finance and Trade, Marine News, etc. This arrangement was admirable for the steady reader, but did not conduce to transient sales. Now the fashion is to group the heads of a large number of the most interesting articles on the front page, continuing the articles on some inside page to make room on the front page for the heading and first few sentences of some other.

The advent of the Hearst papers into Chicago changed the more conservative make-up of several of the other papers, inducing them to strive for street sales more than before, when each paper served its list of regular subscribers which varied little from day to day.

3. Composing Methods: The most important change in the printing industry during the period under observation was in the method of composition. Most of the other technical phases of the industry had by 1880 reached the stage from which further progress was to be made only by the new adaptation of principles already known. But the method of composition had not changed materially for centuries. A writer on the subject was able to say in 1880,[16] "While all these improvements have been following each other in the printing and delivery of newspapers, the ingenuity of man has not yet invented a substitute for the setting of type by hand, the

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[16]Tenth Census, Report on the Newspaper and Periodical Press by S. N. D. North, p. 102.

method of composition remaining precisely the same as when printing was invented."

Although for years inventors had been struggling with the problem, the compositors remained confident that no machine could displace them until one possessing brains was devised. Expressions of this belief are seen frequently in the printing trade journals of that period, but they indicate also that the subject was even then troubling the minds of the printers.

Perhaps the assurance of the compositor was increased by the fact that for sixty years inventors had been working on the problem of the mechanical type-setter, and without much success. The list of these attempts is a long one, containing the names of twenty-four machines for setting cold type, three hand apparatus machines, fourteen devices for speeding up justification, nine type-casters and setters, three type-casting machines, four type-bar machines, fifteen impression devices, seven slug-casting machines, five machines using perforated paper controllers, three transfer machines, and some others, such as type-setting by photography.[17]

Although the first of these was invented in 1822, it was not until 1885 that a genuine labor-saving composing machine was offered to the printing world.[18] There are now

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[17]Thompson, John S. A History of Composing Machines, Table of Contents.

[18]Ibid, p. 1.

but three general styles of machines: the Simplex, an individual type-setting machine, using regular foundry product; the Monotype, a type-casting machine controlled by a perforated paper strip; and the slug-casting machines like the Linotype.

Each of these machines has its place in the printing industry.[19] The slug-casting variety is by far the most common in newspaper establishments of any magnitude. The Monotype is used more in book and job composition, while the Simplex is found almost exclusively in the smaller newspaper

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[19]Description of three kinds of composing machines. The principle upon which the slug-casting machine operates is simple, although the mechanism itself is complicated. The operator touches a key on the keyboard, releasing thereby a brass mold or matrix from the magazine above. This matrix is carried on a belt to the assembler, where it is joined by other matrices as the operator releases them by touching the proper keys. Each matrix is a mold in the shape of one letter, and when the operator has filled up his line, he touches a lever which carries the line of matrices to a point directly in front of a pot of molten metal and a stream of liquid lead is forced through a slot against the line of molds. Cooling almost instantly, this slug of metal bears upon its face a line o' type corresponding to the line of matrices, and is ready to be used in printing. The matrices are carried to a point above the magazine and each dropped in its proper channel, ready to be used again.

The Monotype, as its name suggests, casts individual types. The operator from his keyboard, perforates a strip of heavy paper, which is then fed into the type-casting part of the machine. Compressed air is passed through the perforations, releasing matrices corresponding to the letters touched on the keyboard by the operator in perforating the paper. From these matrices the types are cast. The Monotype was invented in 1886, but was not placed on the market for three or four years.

The Simplex machine, heir to the patents originally held by the Thorne, Cox and Unitype companies, sets and distributes cold foundry types, these being released from their respective channels in a revolving cylinder by the pressure of the proper keys on the keyboard. The machine does not justify the lines, as the other two do, this process having to be done by hand. This machine is found only in small shops where the volume of business would not seem to warrant the investment of a larger sum in a machine which would stand idle six days out of seven.

offices, where the amount of work is not sufficient to warrant the investment in one of the other more expensive machines.

The advantage of any of these machines over the hand method of composition is in the greater speed which can be attained. The Simplex is the slowest, but even with this machine an operator can turn out about twice or three times as much as by hand. The speed attained on the Linotype and Monotype is usually estimated at from three to five times that of hand composition. A compositor setting type by hand is considered a good man if he can set 1,000 ems per hour, while the exceptional compositor has achieved a record of 1,500 ems per hour. On the Linotype, however, a record has been made as high as 13,000 ems per hour.[20] The average speed in the newspaper offices varies greatly, but the "dead-line" below which a man is likely to lose his job, is commonly fixed at some point in the neighborhood of 4,000 ems per hour, or about a column of ordinary matter.

Another point in favor of the type or slug-casting machine is that it gives a new, clean face of type for each issue, whereas the use of the same types repeatedly, either for printing directly or for stereotyping, injures them so that they do not print clearly.

Another factor operating to increase the net speed of machine composition over the hand method is the fact that

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[20]Eleventh special Report of the U. S. Commission of Labor, 1904. p. 37.

no distribution is necessary, which process occupies from one-fourth to one-third the total time spent by hand compositors.

It would seem that the Linotype, which was the first really successful composing machine, did not reach Illinois until after it had become fairly well established in New York City. There were several reasons for this tardiness. In the first place, the Linotype was manufactured in New York. In the second place, the largest papers of the country were located there and it was to the largest papers that the Linotype first appealed most strongly. Once established in a city, its first effect was to displace hand compositors, who drifted to other cities, keeping ahead of the machine invasion, and by the keenness of their competition for work forcing down the wage of hand labor so that the economy of machine composition was for a time a matter of debate.

Another reason for the tardiness of Chicago publishers in introducing Linotypes was found in the strong opposition of the Typographical Union, according to Mr. Lincoln, manager of the Chicago branch of the Mergenthaler Linotype Company. It took time to show the printers that if they could learn to operate the machine they could earn more than "sticking" type the old way, and eventually there would be more work for all. The Herald is alleged to have installed its machines to keep the union from demanding a raise in the wage scale.

The opposition of the union was increased by the action of some of the job shops in the city which early

installed machines and cut prices, taking much work away from the hand shops.

The very eagerness of Chicago newspaper publishers to excel in the quality of their product, typographically considered, is ascribed as another reason for their reluctance to purchase the new machines until it was thoroughly demonstrated that their product was up to the standard previously maintained.

However, Chicago publishers were not blind to the possibilities of the new machine, even before it was a proven success, for in 1885, when a re-organization of the Mergenthaler Linotype Company was affected and the controlling interest bought by a syndicate of newspaper men, the names of Victor Lawson and M. E. Stone of the Chicago Daily News, Henry Smith of the Inter-Ocean, and W. H. Rand of Rand, McNally and Company, all of Chicago, are mentioned as influential in the councils of the new concern.

"The first Linotypes installed in the state of Illinois were the old original 'wind-blower" Linotypes, installed by the Chicago Daily News in January, 1888. The next machines installed were the 'square-base' Linotypes which were installed in the Chicago Daily Abend Post in the fall of 1892. During the years 1893, 1894, and 1895 Linotypes were installed in all the Chicago papers, and also in most of the large dailies in other towns in Illinois, such as Peoria and Springfield."[21]

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[21]Letter from Mr. Lincoln, Manager of the Chicago Agency of the Mergenthaler Linotype Co., under date of Dec. 23, 1915.

It was not until 1890 that Mergenthaler brought out a new style, quite similar to the modern machine. The New York Tribune was the first to use them, and the Chicago News followed soon.

In the Typographical Journal for January 15, 1894, p. 3, are published some data gathered through the union officials concerning the introduction of composing machines. According to this source there were twenty-four machines (make not mentioned) in the state at that time, nineteen of them being in Chicago. Peoria had three and Joliet and Streator one each. The nineteen Chicago machines were scattered in four offices, whether job or newspaper is not stated.

In the printers' trade journals of the time we find mention of the introduction of the machines. Thus in the Fourth Estate:[22] "The Chicago Herald has placed an order for linotypes. It is said to be for fifty machines, thirty-six for the Herald and fourteen for the Post, which would make it the largest order ever given. The Inter-Ocean has ordered twenty-three machines and the Tribune twelve. Several of the German dailies of Chicago are now using linotypes." And in December, 1894, the Chicago correspondent to the Typographical Journal writes,[23] "Well, they're here. The Times has set a stiff pace, publishing sixteen pages on week days and running

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[22] The Fourth Estate, Aug. 23, 1894, p. 8.

[23] Typographical Journal, Dec. 15, 1894, p. 7.

its machines over-time. The Herald is teaching its men in phalanxes on the Post machines, their own being expected by next Sunday. The Paige machine, which has been running as an experiment in the Herald composing room for several months has been taken back to the factory a failure." The Tribune installed its machines about March, 1895, and in the Fourth Estate for April 4, 1895, we read that linotypes had recently been installed as follows: Chicago Dispatch 7, Inter-Ocean 23, Illinois State Register 3, Illinois State Journal 3.

By this time the idea of composing machines seems to have occupied the minds of many inventors, as we read, "Scarcely a day passes but the announcement is made that patents have been filed for a new style of type-setting machine, although but few of them have reached such a stage as to permit of practical tests as to their usefulness."[24]

Naturally the Linotypes were installed first in the large daily plants, for reasons already mentioned, but it was not long before enterprising country publishers began to use them. The first one-machine plant in Illinois or any other state was that of the Morris Herald, of which M. L. Sackett was the publisher, where the machine was set up in 1895. There are now several one-machine plants in the state, and the num ber is growing with the lower cost of Linotypes and competing machines.

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[24]The Fourth Estate, Jan. 3, 1895, p. 2.

The other machines were also making progress, especially in the smaller cities of the state. The Thorne, ancestor of the modern Simplex, seems to have been the most popular of the low priced machines. Decatur, Bloomington, Joliet, Galesburg and other cities had Thorne machines running in 1895.[25]

The progress of the composing machine in Illinois has been rapid. In 1900 there were 267 and in 1905 there were 482 machines in the newspaper and periodical plants of the state.[26] "At the present time there are approximately 700 Linotypes in use in the city of Chicago, and approximately 1,500 in the state of Illinois. Linotypes are in use in towns of less than 500 population, being used on weekly papers. The number of Linotypes in the state is being increased at the rate of 86 per year."[27]

The use of machine composition for magazines and periodicals issued less frequently than once a week was delayed for some time after daily newspapers were nearly all machine set. There were several reasons for this.

In the first place, machines were adapted to newspaper work because of the last minute rush of news so common in big offices. In anticipation of this rush, a number of

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[25]Typographical Journal, Feb. 15, 1895, p. 6; and The Fourth Estate, Aug. 1, 1895, p. 8.

[26]Bulletin 79. Census of Mfrs., 1905, p. 82.

[27]Letter from Mr. Lincoln, Manager of the Chicago Agency of the Mergenthaler Linotype Co., under date of Dec. 23, 1915.

machines with their operators might be kept comparatively idle for a part of the day at less expense than the hand compositors necessary to set the same amount of matter could be kept on the payroll, as one machine man can produce six or eight times as much as a hand man over a short period of time.

Again, in Chicago particularly, the introduction of machines into the newspaper offices threw a large number of men out of employment. These provided the job offices, where most of the magazines are printed, with a large supply of labor from which to draw. Many of these idle men were the best hand compositors, as it was the man who had specialized in straight matter who was thrown out of a job, while the all-round man found a place setting ads or in job work. We read in the Typographical Journal for January 15, 1896, p. 45, "By way of parenthesis it may be remarked that many book and job offices in Chicago will not have type-setting machines very soon because it would not pay them--even if it is reported that orders for seventy more are yet unfilled. While any number of men can be kept standing around at beck and call without compensation for lost time, they are cheaper than machinery." Add to this the fact that each man employed exerted his utmost speed to gain a steady job over the eager competitors, and we see the force of this argument more strongly.

Then, too, for years it was supposed that for fine printing on highly finished paper, such as is used in some magazines, the softer metal of the Linotype slug was inferior

to the individual type or foundry product. As this prejudice was overcome, another obstacle in the way of machine set magazines was removed.

The expiration of many of the Linotype patents within the last few years furnished the opportunity for several companies to start up, manufacturing machines very similar in many respects to the Linotype. Among these are the Linograph and the Intertype. The former had in December, 1915, sold six machines to Illinois publishers, although they had put their product on the market but the year previous.[28]

The present status of the composing machine in Illinois seems to be that of decided progress. The manufacturers believe that the usefulness of the machine has not nearly reached its maximum, and that it will continue to perform an increasing proportion of the composition in Illinois printing offices.

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[28]The emphasis placed upon the growth in the use of the Linotype may be explained by indicating its relative importance among composing machines. The International Typographical Union secretaries furnish statistics of composing machines in their jurisdictions, and from these we are able to see that in the sections of the country where locals of the Union exist the Linotype is much the most popular machine. The figures cover the United States as a whole. In 1904 out of 7,129 composing machines reported, 6,375 were Linotypes. Of these 6,375, there were 5,046 running in newspaper offices. Of the 225 Monotypes, only 65 were in newspaper offices. (Data from page 212 of the January, 1904, Report on Minimum Wage Scales of Typographical Unions.) In 1914, out of 12,102 Linotypes reported, 8,349 were in newspaper offices. Out of the 1,346 Monotypes, only 210 were in the newspaper offices. This indicates that the Monotype is still used mostly in book and job work, although the Linotype is invading that field. In 1914 there were 13,718 machines reported, the two makes mentioned embracing 13,448 of these. (Data from page 4 of the March, 1914, Report on Minimum Wage Scales of Typographical Unions.)

Photo-Engraving or Etching Department

The introduction of the printed illustration into our newspapers and periodicals about twenty-five years ago was one of the three or four great events in the history of printing. It revolutionized our periodical press, created a new department in the large newspaper office, and gave rise to a new independent industry. The photo-engravers employed in the metropolitan newspaper offices make ready for publication the work of a corps of artists, cartoonists and photographers. Independent photo-engraving plants have arisen, to furnish cuts to printing plants having no facilities for their production, so that scarcely a periodical appears without illustration of some sort.

"The effect upon the industry has been second in importance only to that of the composing machine."[29]

1. Photo-engraving: Photo-engraving as now practiced had its beginning about 1890, although it was introduced about 1875.[30]

The plates from which pictures are printed in newspapers are of two kinds--zinc etchings and photo-engravings.[31] The zinc etchings, which are the cheaper and more easily printed in the ordinary newspaper, are usually made from

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[29]The Printing Art, Vol. 3, p. 61.

[30]National Printer-Journalist, Jan., 1914, p. 29. Reprint from Bulletin No. 15, Subdivision No. 42, Engravers, Electrotypers and Designers, of the Chicago Association of Commerce.

[31]The Practice of Journalism. William S. & Martin, p. 34.

pen-and-ink sketches or drawings. The photo-engravings are made on copper from photographs and are often called half-tones.

By the photo-engraving process a photograph or drawing is reproduced, not by engraving by hand upon wood or steel, but by photographing the desired picture and printing the negative upon the plate from which it is to be finally printed. In this way the slow hand process is replaced by a quicker and more accurate mechanical process. If everything moves smoothly, a half-tone plate is made from a finished photograph or drawing and mounted in from thirty to thirty-five minutes.[32]

The half-tone was adapted to color printing early in the 'nineties. The facilities of photoengraving establishments for the dissection of ordinary half-tones into colors, and the "three-color" process have now made the use of color prints almost as common as that of half-tones.

The result of this development in the art of photo-engraving is that wood engraving is almost a lost art, as is that of steel engraving, which was carried to great perfection about the middle of the last century.

The growth of the photo-engraving branch of the printing industry is apparent. In 1910 there were twenty-seven establishments in Illinois, employing 1,561 persons, and having a total annual product worth $2,678,304.[33]

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[32]Given. Making a Newspaper, p. 284.

[33]Thirteenth Census, Vol. X., pp. 758-759.

In 1914 there were about forty photo-engraving plants in Chicago, one of which is the largest photo-engraving establishment in the United States, if not in the world.[34]

2. Rotogravure: In 1914 the photo-engravers were startled by the prediction that a new process, called "rotogravure", was destined to replace photo-engraving.

At the 1915 convention of the International Association of Manufacturing Photo-Engravers a paper was read, in which the writer said he firmly believed "that eventually this process is going to take the place of photo-engraving."[35] The reason assigned was the simplicity of the process and its directness as compared with photo-engracing, and the speed with which it could be handled. It does away entirely with electrotyping and make-ready, and permits the use of a wide range of papers.

The process is really but an adaptation of the old photogravure process to the modern rotary press, a sensitive cylinder being used instead of a flat surface as formerly. This makes for a much higher speed in printing.

Already we have had the product of this new art introduced into Illinois. In 1915 there were but two rotogravure outfits in Chicago, one being operated by the Tribune and the other independently, doing work for the Sunday supplements of

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[34]National Printer-Journalist, Jan., 1914, p. 29. Reprint from Bulletin No. 15, Subdivision No. 42, Engravers, Electrotypers and Designers, of the Chicago Association of Commerce.

[35]The Engraver and Electrotyper. Sept., 1915, p. 2.

some of the other papers.

Electrotyping and Stereotyping Department

1. Electrotyping:[36] The electrotyping process was well known in 1880, but it was greatly improved in the 'nineties by the use of a strong current of electricity to hasten the deposit of copper, so that the time now required by the process may be controlled by the electrotyper to suit his customer.

The advantage of the process is that it enables the printer to get his type free for use again, while he prints from the plates. These plates can also be stored for the possible printing of future editions of the book or whatever it may be.

In 1914 there were in Chicago almost forty electrotype foundries, which, together with the photo-engraving plants, employed about five thousand artists, artisans, mechanics, clerks, salesmen, etc. The annual value of the joint product, measured by the charge to the consumer, may be placed at about $5,000,000.[37]

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[36]An impression is taken in specially prepared wax, and the mould is black-leaded to insure electrical contact. It is then placed in a plating bath and a shell of copper is deposited. This is stripped from the mould, the back is tinned and an alloy resembling type metal is then poured over it to give it strength. Mounted to make it type-high it is then ready for printing.

[37]National Printer-Journalist, Jan., 1914, p. 29. Taken from Bulletin No. 15, Subdivision No. 42, Engravers, Electrotypers and Designers of the Chicago Association of Commerce.

2. Stereotyping:[38] The third great department of newspaper mechanics--stereotyping--was well developed by 1880, but the work was done largely by hand. The matrix was placed on the type by hand, and the impression taken by hand by pounding with a mallet. The metal was poured into the casting box from a ladle held in the hands and the crude plate trimmed, routed and made ready for the press by hand. Even so, the process effected a great saving of time as compared with the printing direct from the type, but in 1900 the entire process was made mechanical by the introduction of the Autoplate, a machine which turns out the stereotype plates ready for the press, at the rate of three or four a minute, whereas before its invention one plate a minute was considered remarkably fast work.[39] The process is entirely automatic and saves much valuable time between closing the forms and starting the presses, allowing more time for getting late news into the paper. The Chicago Tribune put in an Autoplate outfit in 1902, the first in the state. Now several of the other Chicago

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[38]Stereotyping is the art of duplicating, in solid metal, type or cuts composed for printing. The process, briefly described, consists of taking a few sheets of paper, soaked in water until soft, and pasting them together to form a flong. This flong is beaten or pressed into a page of type and dried, thus forming a matrix to receive the molten metal, which, when cooled, becomes an exact duplicate of the type page. A large number of duplicate casts may be made from the same matrix, either in flat form as required for flat-bed presses, or curved to fit the cylinders of rotary presses.

[39]The Fourth Estate, Jan. 25, 1902, p. 5. Also Twelfth Census, Vol. 9, p. 1,087.

papers have them.

Other mechanical improvements in the stereotyping process, such as improved drying tables, a matrix-rolling machine, and others, have brought this department of the modern newspaper to a high state of efficiency.

The Press Room

1. Press Development: In 1880 the general principles of press construction were not radically different from those governing the building of presses today. The ordinary cylinder press, commonly seen in small country newspaper offices, although in an improved form, came into use about 1830.[40] In 1846 a method was discovered of attaching the type form to the drum instead of to the bed of the press.[41] This was not satisfactory, but the stereotyping process soon came into use, by which the plates, curved to fit the drum of the press, took the place of type. This paved the way for the web press, which prints from stereotype plates on a roll or web of paper instead of on separate sheets. The web press was placed on the market in 1871 and was well established in the larger offices by 1880. Since then the development has taken the direction of larger presses, capable of printing more papers per hour, and of the construction of perfecting presses capable of producing the finest cut work as rapidly as the newspaper presses turn out their product.[42] Such machines, which

[40]Given. Making a Newspaper, p. 15.

[41]Ibid. p. 16.

[42]Twelfth Census, Vol. IX., p. 1,087.

were an impossibility in 1880 and an experiment in 1890, are now in general use, and necessary to the production of the large number of inexpensive magazines and newspaper special supplements, profusely illustrated, which have become an important part of current literature.

But the greatest advance has been in the direction of printing in colors from plates, by means of which the printer has invaded the business of the lithographer. This printing in colors from half-tone plates was partially solved in 1888 but was not commonly used until a few years later. The press makers met the demand for a press capable of printing in colors with a machine which prints the three primary colors and produces several more by combination, all at one impression, so that a complete picture in many colors may be the product of one impression.[43]

There have been many variations of the perfecting press, some even placing colored covers on the printed product and stitching them in place.

Chicago has for more than a generation occupied an important place in press development and press building, and it is stated on good authority that more than fifty percent of the world's output of flat-bed, cylinder presses are either manufactured in Chicago or are built in branches established across the ocean which Chicago press builders control.[44]

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[43]Twelfth Census, Vol. IX., p. 1,087.

[44]The American Pressman, Vol. 22, p. 100.

As an illustration of the enterprise of Chicago printers it may be mentioned that the old Inter-Ocean was the first newspaper in the United States to secure a rapid four-color press and the New York Recorder was second.[45] This was in 1892, and "students" from the press rooms of large newspapers all over the country came to Chicago to learn something of the new press and its work.[46] Now smaller dailies, as in Peoria, have color presses.

Turning again to the press used strictly for newspaper work, we observe a great development in size and speed. In 1880 the Chicago Times, then a leader of the city's newspapers, had six double presses which printed and folded 100,000 papers per hour.[47] Twenty years later, in 1901, the Daily News put in ten sextuple presses, with a combined capacity of 720,000 eight-page papers an hour. This is said to have been the largest press capacity in the United States at that time.[48]

The next year the Chicago Tribune erected seven new octuple presses. Each of these presses weighed over one hundred tons and could print 96,000 eight-page papers per hour, or a combined capacity of 672,000 per hour. Now the Tribune

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[45]The Fourth Estate, May 2, 1895, p. 5.

[46]The American Pressman, Vol. 23, p. 433.

[47]D. W. Wood. Chicago and Its Distinguished Citizens, p. 298.

[48]The Fourth Estate, Apr. 20, 1901, p. 2.

has six double sextuple presses and one nine-cylinder multi-color perfecting press.[49] These six presses have a combined maximum capacity of 900,000 papers per hour. Each has twelve plate-carrying cylinders, each cylinder carrying eight plates. One of these presses contains about 50,000 parts.

These huge presses are merely piles or aggregations of single or unit presses, each unit press being considered as one having a single cylinder carrying eight plates. This cylinder revolves about 200 times per minute and so prints in one hour 12,000 eight-pages. The piling of presses on each other is due partly to a desire to economize space, and partly to the fact that the newspapers today contain many pages, all of which must be run into the same folding machine.

While the newspaper press is perhaps the most interesting on account of its size and speed, the job cylinder press has also been greatly improved, so that our magazines and finely printed periodicals can be produced. Its speed has been increased, and construction modified to permit of printing the fine half-tone illustrations so freely used.

It is the country newspaper office that has lagged the farthest behind in the march of press building progress. Here, a press may be run not more than an hour a week and with such treatment will last almost indefinitely. Hence it comes that in some of the smaller country weekly offices we

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[49]Letter to the writer from W. H. Field, Business Manager of Chicago Tribune, under date of Nov. 3, 1915.

find ancient cylinder presses that are operated by a huge crank turned by hand. The still more ancient Washington hand press has been generally abandoned in Illinois for the printing of newspapers, but one, so far as learned, being in regular use now.

As late as 1894 it was said that over one-half of all the weekly newspapers were printed on hand presses, but the subject of faster and higher grade machines was attracting considerable interest among the smaller publishers. As the two-revolution job press and other fast styles found their way into the larger job printing plants, the old drum-cylinder presses were sold to the publishers of the country weeklies very cheaply, where they superseded the hand machines.

A recent innovation in the printing press line is the "off-set" press, which prints from a zinc plate. This plate does not come in contact with the paper, however, but prints on a rubber cylinder, which transfers the impression to the paper. The press was heralded as an epoch-marking invention when it was first brought out between 1905 and 1910, and printers are still discussing its merits and faults, apparently not certain just what place in the industry the new press should occupy. At present its field seems to be confined to certain classes of work where the press runs are long, but at least one manufacturer claims he has adapted the off-set principle to the newspaper web process, thereby doing away with the stereotyping process.

2. Automatic Feeding and Folding Devices: So

closely are they connected with the press in practice that it is natural to mention at this point the devices for feeding the sheets to the press and folding them as they emerge from it.

When the swift, two-revolution job presses were invented the demand for an automatic feeding device was greatly stimulated, for no human press feeder could handle the sheets of paper as fast as the press would print them. These automatic feeding devices were not perfected until the 'nineties, but now they are used in many shops, permitting the presses to be run at a much higher speed than when fed by hand. These feeding devices are also adapted to feed the folding machines.

The invention of the rotary folder in 1876, about five years after the web press was placed on the market, did much to make that form of press of value to the printer. This rotary folder folds the webs as they come from the press and can be adjusted to fold the paper in almost any size or manner. In fact, the folder may be said to have kept pace with the presses in their development, various styles being devised for different purposes, some for web and some for sheet-fed presses.

The folder has been combined with a stitching machine in some cases, and with other devices, until we have one machine that takes the printed sheets from the press, folds, gathers, collates, covers and wire stitches copies of magazines and pamphlets, delivering them ready for distribution.

The invention and general use of automatic binding

machinery of different kinds has greatly supplemented improvements in printing, although their use in the newspaper and periodical industry has been very limited, the binding of even the better magazines being usually done by a simple wire stitcher.

3. Mailing Devices: There are many devices used in the mailing rooms of newspapers and periodicals for the placing of the addresses on the papers to be mailed. The chief improvement since 1880 has been in the matter of speed, until now there is scarcely a hesitation in the progress of the printed paper to the train. These mailing devices are simply machines for printing names and addresses upon the already printed and folded paper, and have kept stride in their development with the progress of other printing machines. There are several makes in use, the swiftest addressing, folding and wrapping about 10,000 papers per hour, and sliding them into mail bags ready for the train. In the smaller offices simple stamping machines operated by foot or hand are in use, except in those cases where the editor "takes his pen in hand" and performs the operation.

Explanation of Technical Terms.

The DeVinne type was named for its designer, Theodore L. DeVinne, one of the most famous printers of his day and an exceptional student of the typographic art.

The "point", the unit for measurement of type bodies, is not based upon our system of linear measurement, although seventy-two points do approximately equal one inch. The height of a seventy-two point type, therefore, measuring the base and not the printing surface, is about an inch. Seven or eight point type is commonly used for the reading matter in newspapers.

A "series" of type refers to type cast in a number of sizes, the letters in the various sizes being alike in every particular except size. But when variations in the letters are introduced, as italic, condensed, expanded or extra bold, while still preserving the distinguishing characteristics of the letters, a family is said to have been forms. A family is thus made up of several series and a series is composed of several sizes.

An "em" is the unit of measurement for type as it is composed ready for printing. It derives its name from the fact that it was formerly equal to the space occupied by the letter "m" in the line. Later it was made a square measure, applied to matter of any sizes type. The ordinary width of a newspaper column is thirteen ems.

CHAPTER III.

Numbers, Distribution and Circulation.

For the better presentation of the facts regarding the numbers, distribution and circulation of Illinois newspapers and periodicals we have taken them up by classes, the first classification being based upon the period of issue.

Dailies.

The daily is distinctly an urban publication. As a manufacturing industry its success depends upon its location in a city, because only in a city are found the sources of supply - news and advertisements - in sufficient amount to make the production possible. But more important is the demand aspect, and only in a city is the demand sufficient to make a daily profitable.

A large and dense population is required for the production of a daily publication. It must be large, because it takes many people to create the supply of news and advertisements. necessary to fill a paper six or seven days a week. Conversely, it takes many people to compose the subscription list necessary for its profitable publication, for advertisers will not spend six or seven times the sums spent for weekly advertising, unless they reach six or seven times as many people.

A dense population is required, because the newspaper is primarily a local enterprise, circulating largely in the territory adjacent to the place of publication. With the necessity of a large population, it is obvious that it must also be close to a common point of interest.

In 1880 there were only eight dailies published in places of less than 7500 inhabitants and only three in places of less than 5000. With improvements in means of communication and transportation, and the development of cheaper methods of production, the dailies have invaded the smaller places, so that in 1910 there were fifty-four dailies issued in places of less than 7500 and twenty in places of less than 5000. The tendency to push out into new places is shown by the fact that in 1880 dailies were published in but twenty-nine places, while in 1910 seventy-two places had at least one daily each. Even by 1910, however, but one place of less than 2000 population supported a daily, while in 1880 no daily was published in a place of less than 2500.

The accompanying maps illustrate the point of distribution in the counties where the larger places are located, as do also the tables shown.

Numbers.

Between 1880 and 1900 the number of dailies in Illinois increased rapidly, but about the latter date this growth received a check, so that during the past fifteen years the movement has apparently been in the direction of fewer instead of more dailies.

In 1880 daily papers were published in only twenty-five of the counties of Illinois. During the period of expansion, from 1880 to 1900, they increased and spread so that by the latter year fifty-six counties had 176 daily papers. In 1910 daily papers were published in fifty-six counties, but the attempts in Jasper county had been abandoned and a new one made in Saline.

The increase in numbers took place very largely in counties which previously supported no daily. This, in a general way, means that much of the expansion took place in the southern counties. The tendency in the counties where daily papers were already located has been toward larger papers and less competition.

This does not mean, however, that it has become common for daily papers to have a complete monopoly of their field, for in 1880 out of 29 places where daily papers were published, thirteen, or almost one-half, of them had but one paper each, while in 1910, out of 72 places where daily papers were published, only twenty-one, or less than one-third, had but one daily each. Soon after a place grows large enough to support one daily, it usually is able to support two. The increase in number of places having but one daily occurred largely in places of small population that had no daily previously.

Circulation.

Another tendency is toward the steady and rapid growth in the aggregate circulation of the papers. From 270,923 in 1880 to probably nearly 3,000,000 in 1915 is indicative of progress.

With this growth in aggregate circulation has gone a growth in the average circulation per paper, which shows that the concentration movement is very pronounced. An increase from less than four thousand in 1880 to over 15,000 in 1915 shows that each daily paper reaches a larger circle of readers than formerly.

The figures also indicate that the aggregate circulation of daily papers in Illinois is increasing more rapidly than the population, the number of papers printed each day for every 100 inhabitants having grown from 8 to 40.

Dailies.[1a]

Size of place		1-500	501 to 1000	1001 to 1500	1501 to 2000	2001 to 2500	2501 to 3000	3001 to 3500	3501 to 4000	4001 to 4500	4501 to 5000	5001 to 7500	7501 to 10,000	10,001 to 25,000	25001 to 50000	50,001 to 100,000	over 100,000 (Chi.)	Total
No. places	1880						1	1			1	5	17	21	12		14	72
	1910				2	2	3	1	5	1	6	34	21	38	21	11	36	181
No. places published	1880						1	1			1	5	9	9	2		1	29
No. places published	1910				1	2	3	1	4	1	4	19	11	15	8	2	1	72
No. places having 1 paper	1880	0	0	0	0	0	1	1	0	0	1	5	3	2	0	0	0	13
No. places having 1 paper	1910	0	0	0	0	2	3	1	3	1	2	6	3	0	0	0	0	21

[1a] Ayer's Newspaper Annual, 1881 and 1911.

Daily Newspapers in Illinois.

Year	Number	Agg. Circ. per issue.	Average circ. per issue	Agg. circ. per issue per 100 inhabitants	No. inhabitants to each paper.
1880	68[4]	270,923[2]	3955[2]	8	45,262
1890	121[3]	774,486[2]	6401[2]	20	31,622
1900	197[1]	1,449,087[2]	7356[2]	30	24,474
1905	192[1]	1,954,329[5]	10,178[4]	--	-- ---
1910	194[1]	2,323,913[5]	11,973[4]	40	29,064
1915	173[6]	2,697,382[6]	15,591[4]	--	-- ---

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[1]13th Census Vol. 10. p 789.

[2]12th Census Vol. 9. pp 1060-1061.

[3]12th Census Vol. 9. p 1074.

[4]Computed.

[5]13th Census Vol. 10 p 790. Ave. combined circulation per issue.

[6]Ayer's Newspaper Annual. 1915.

Daily Papers in Illinois by Years.[7]

1881 - 72	1899 - 183
1882 - 73	1900 - 185
1883 - 85	1901 - 182
1884 - 89	1902 - 183
1885 - 87	1903 - 180
1886 - 97	1904 - 181
1887 - 107	1905 - 182
1888 - 109	1906 - 185
1889 - 109	1907 - 179
1890 - 117	1908 - 179
1891 - 119	1909 - 181
1892 - 136	1910 - 180
1893 - 138	1911 - 181
1894 - 138	1912 - 170
1895 - 144	1913 - 175
1896 - 156	1914 - 173
1897 - 171	1915 - 171
1898 - 174	1916 - 173

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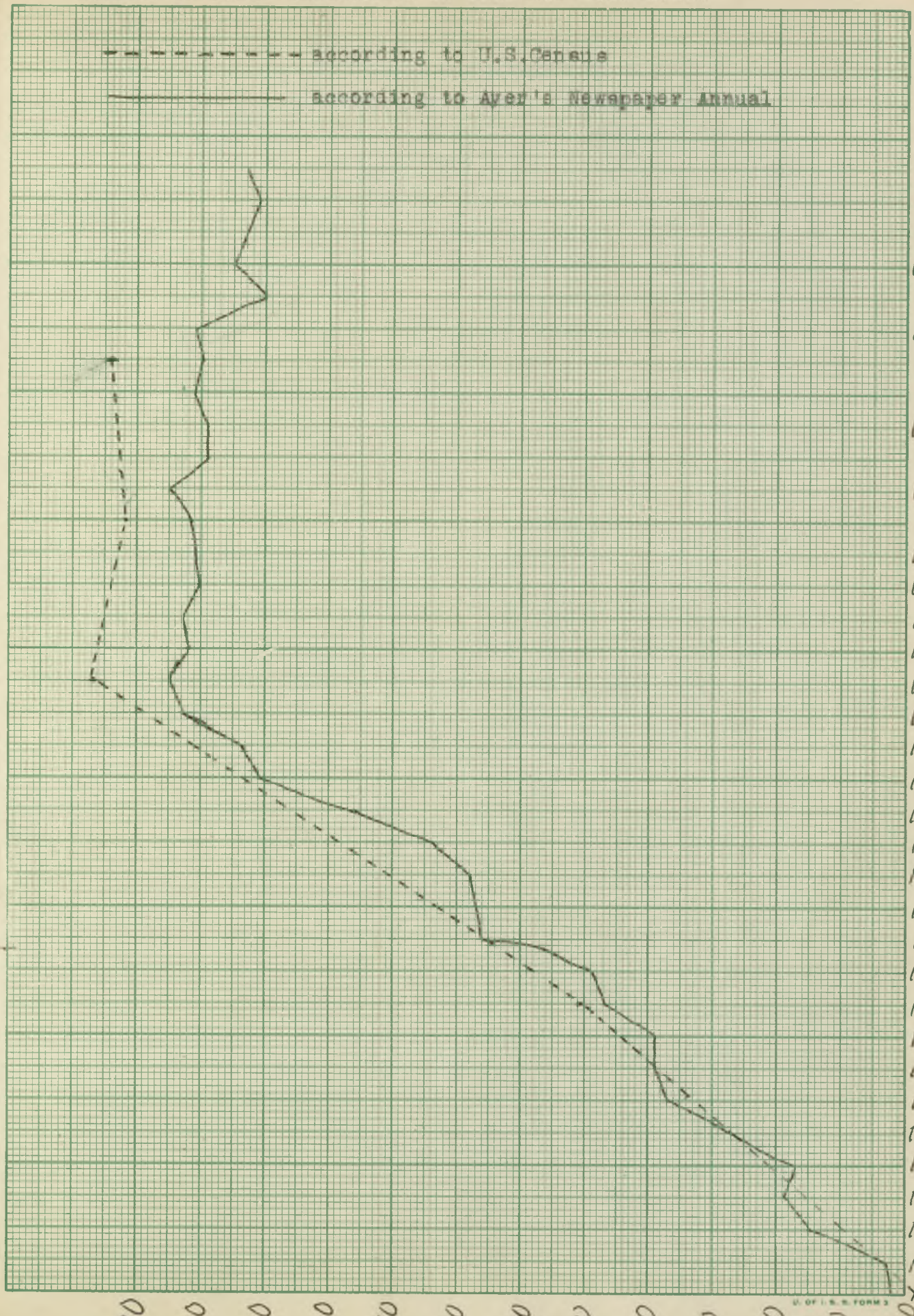
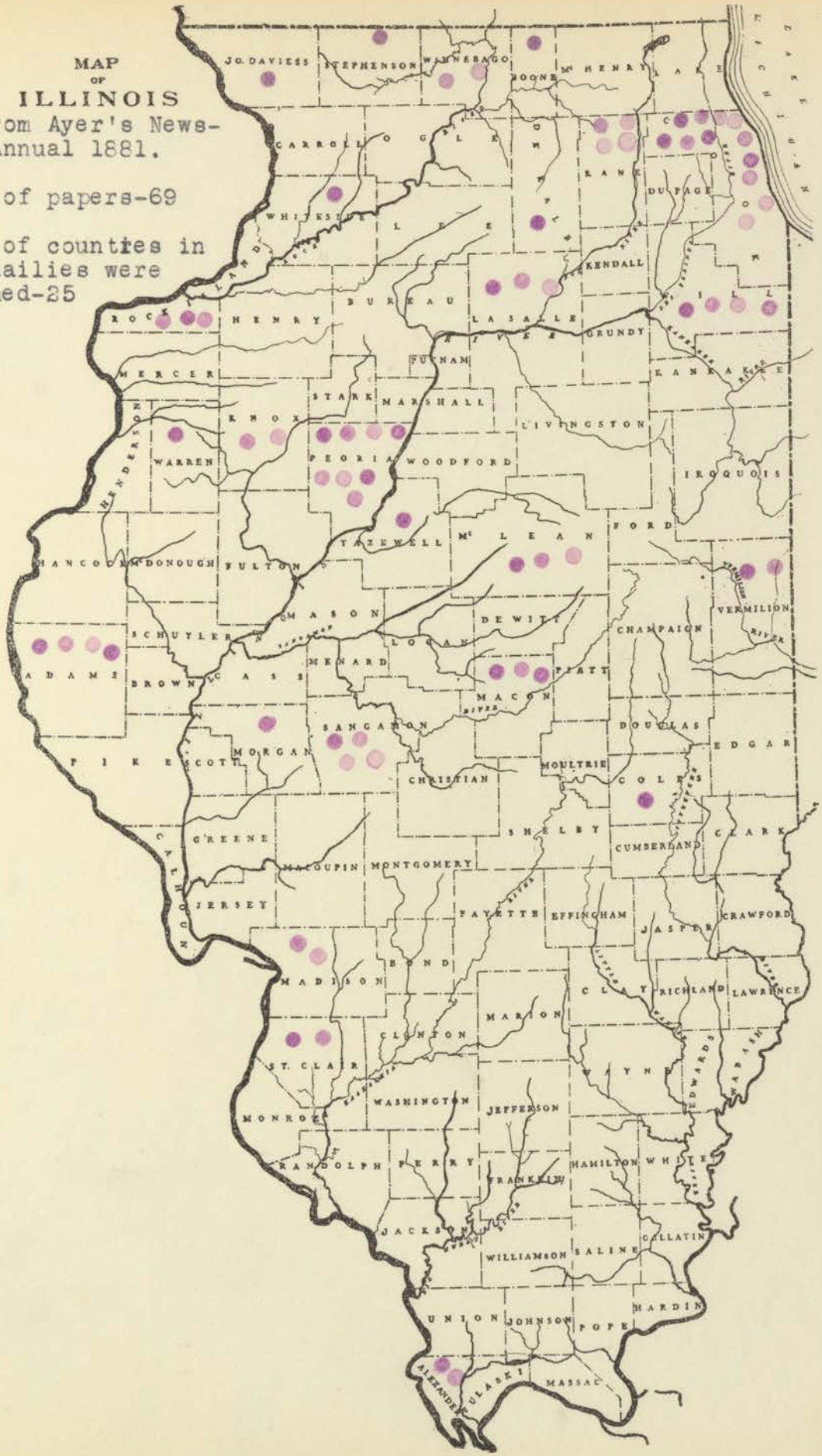
[7] Ayer's Newspaper Annual for each Year.

CHART I.

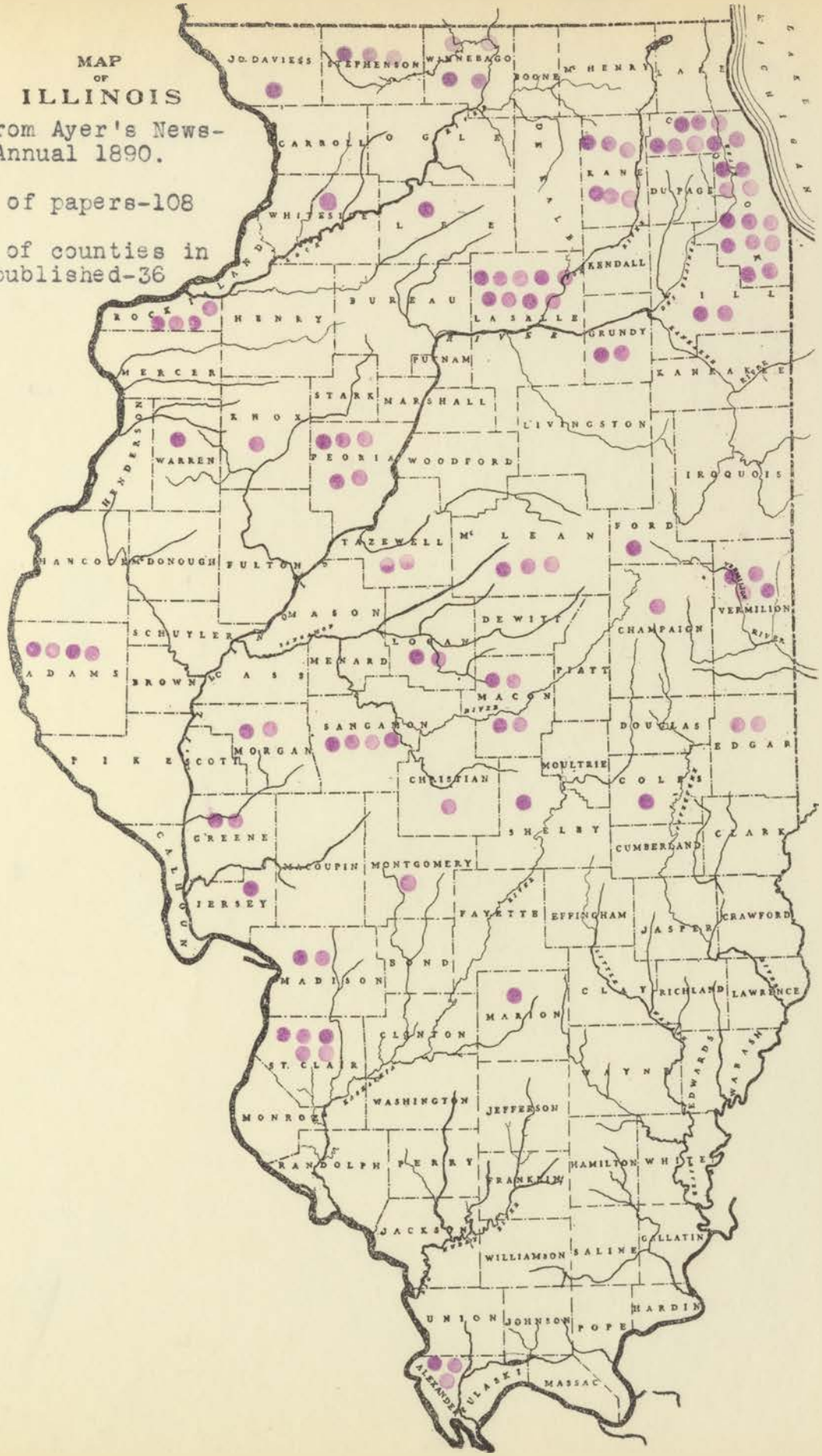
NUMBER OF DAILY NEWSPAPERS IN ILLINOIS 1880-1915.



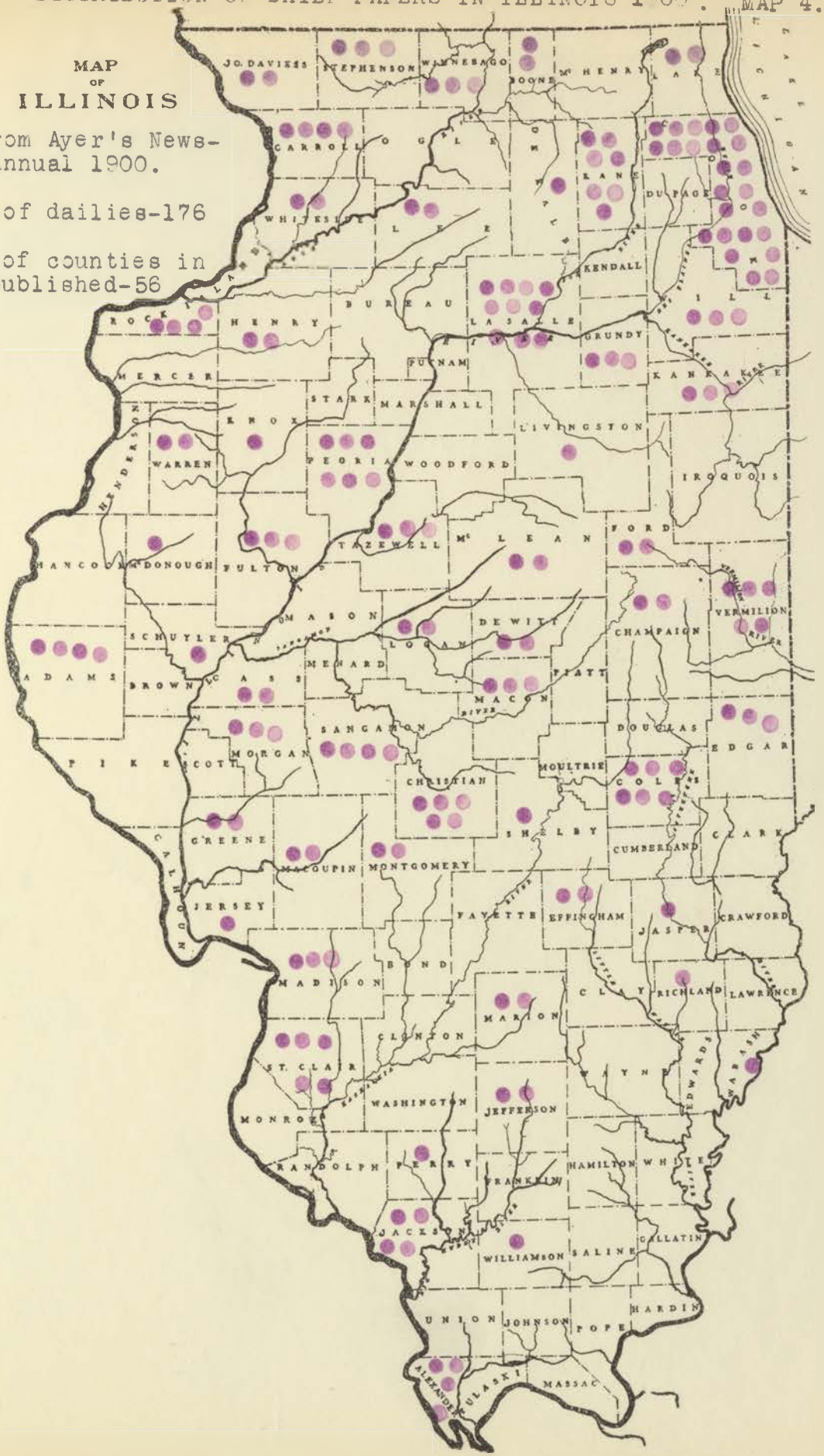
DISTRIBUTION OF DAILY PAPERS 1880. MAP 2.



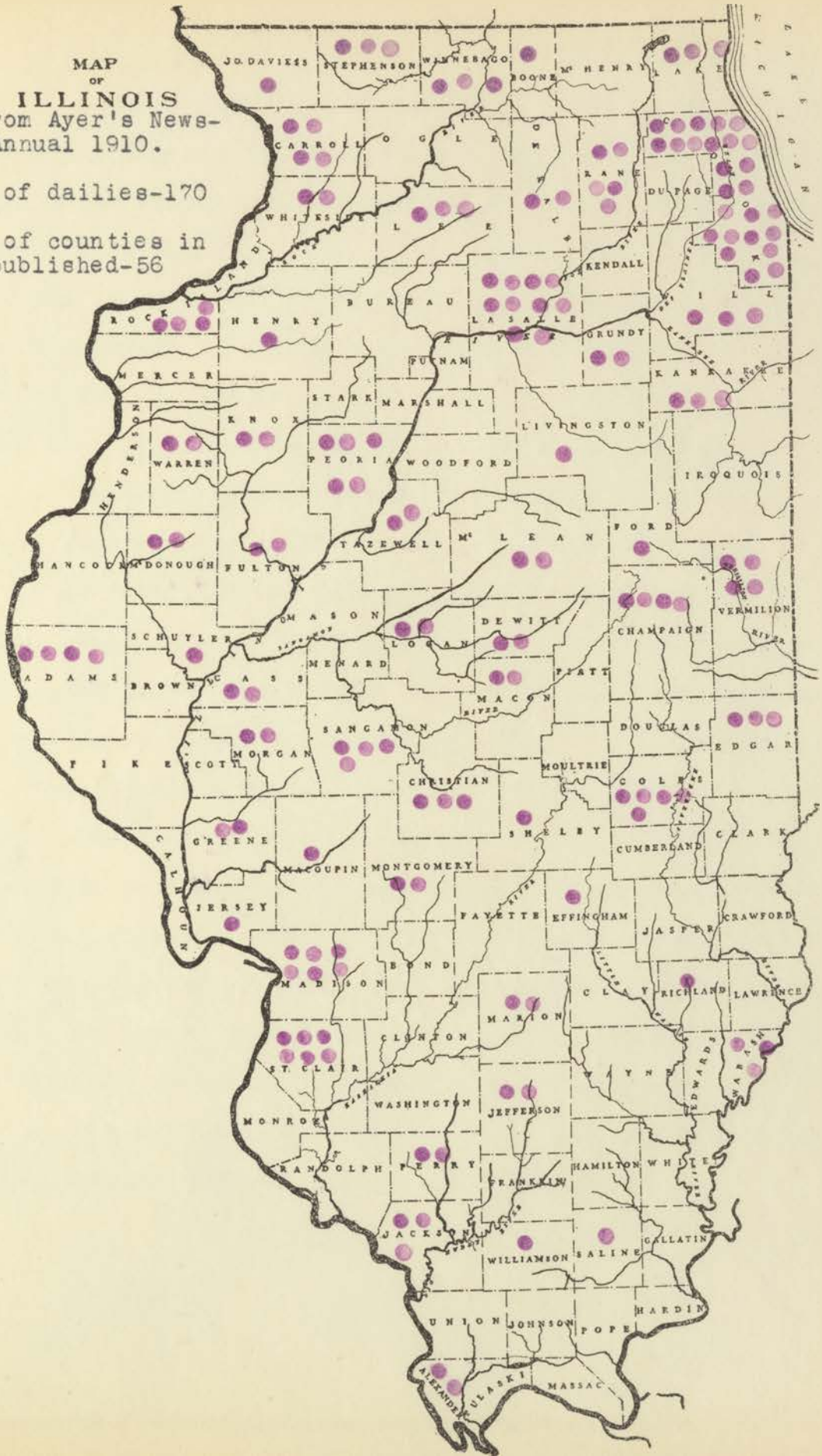
DISTRIBUTION OF DAILY PAPERS 1890. MAP 3.



DISTRIBUTION OF DAILY PAPERS IN ILLINOIS 1900. MAP 4.



DISTRIBUTION OF DAILY PAPERS IN ILLINOIS 1910. MAP 5.



Daily papers are of two kinds, morning and evening papers. Of the two classes, evening papers are much more numerous in the state as a whole, although there seemed to be a slight movement in favor of morning papers during the decade 1900-1910, doubtless owing to the influence of the rural free delivery, which made it possible to furnish the farmer with much later news by means of the morning paper, while reaching him at the same time as the evening paper printed twelve hours previously.

Although the number of morning papers is smaller than that of evening papers, the average circulation is much larger, due to the fact that the morning paper is found only in the larger cities. This is true for several reasons. In the first place it is only the larger papers that can afford the added expense for help necessary to get out a morning issue. In the second place, the necessity for a morning paper is not felt in the smaller places. The daily papers in the small towns are largely devoted to local interests, and not much of great importance occurs after the middle of the afternoon, while in the big cities, with the night life customary there, much more happens at night. Then, too, the smaller papers do not have the extensive wire service bringing news into the office at all hours of the twenty-four.

The aggregate circulation of the evening papers is, however, larger than that of the morning papers.

Morning Papers in Illinois.

Year	Number	Agg. Circ. per issue	Ave. Circ. per issue
1880			
1890			
1900	44		
1905	36	693,700	19,269
1910	51	889,360	17,438
1915	39[8]	1,024,313	26,266

Evening Papers in Illinois.

1880			
1890			
1900	153		
1905	156	1,260,629	8,081
1910	143	1,434,733	10,033
1915	134	1,673,069	12,485

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[8] Ayer's

Chicago Dailies.

In a general way the Chicago dailies exhibit the tendencies characteristic of the dailies in the state as a whole. They show the same period of expansion from 1880 to 1900, and a subsequent era of concentration. The aggregate circulation per issue has gained steadily, as has the average circulation per issue. The number of inhabitants to each paper has increased each decade, while for every one hundred inhabitants of the city there is an increasing number of papers issued from the presses of all the newspaper plants.

The average circulation per issue is of course much greater than that of the dailies in the rest of the state, and the circulation of papers per 100 inhabitants is also greater.

Chicago Morning and Evening Papers.

From 1880 to 1900 the movement was decidedly in favor of the evening papers, as regards the numbers of each. But from 1900 to the present time this tendency seems to have been well checked by the influence of the rural free delivery. While we have no circulation statistics previous to 1905, we can see this tendency in the five year period 1905 to 1910, altho the evening papers still have the larger circulation.

We do not find the difference in average circulation of the two classes of papers in Chicago as we did in the state as a whole, the two being not far from equal.

The aggregate and average circulation of both classes are on the increase, as elsewhere in the state.

Chicago Dailies.

	Total No.	Agg. Circ. per issue	Ave. Circ. per issue	Agg. Circ. per issue per 100 inhabitants	No. inhabitants to each paper
1880	18[9]	220,577[9]	12,254[9]	43[11]	27,954[11]
1890	27[9]	644,000[9]	23,852[9]	58[11]	40,735[11]
1900	37[9]	1,099,555[9]	29,718[9]	64[11]	45,907[11]
1905	34[9]	1,630,914[9]	47,968[9]	--	-----
1910	39[10]	1,809,325[10]	46,393[11]	82[11]	56,033[11]
1915	37[12]	2,145,400[12]	57,784	--	-----

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[9]Bulletin 79. Table 56. p 51

[10]13th Census, Vol. 10. p 791. Ave. Combined daily circ.

[11]Computed.

[12]Ayer's Newspaper Annual. 1915. pp 179-195.

Estimated Pop. of Chi. 1915 - 2,393,325.

Morning and Evening Dailies in Chicago.

Year	A. M.	P. M.
1880	10[14]	8[14]
1890	14[14]	13[14]
1900	16[14]	21[14]
1905	11[14]	23[14]
1910	19[15]	20[15]
1915[16]	15[16]	22[16]

Average Combined Circulation per Issue.

Morning.	Evening.
1905 - 604,584[15]	1905 - 979,603[15]
1910 - 755,683[15]	1910 - 1,053,642[15]
1915 - 879,921[16]	1915 - 1,265,479[16]

Percentage of Total Circulation.

	A. M.	P. M.
1905	38.2	61.8
1910	41.8	58.2
1915	41.0	59.0

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[14]Bulletin 79. Table 56. p. 51.

[15]Thirteenth Census. Vol. 10 p 791.

[16]Ayer's Newspaper Annual 1915.

Dailies Outside of Chicago.

Precisely the same tendencies are discernible here, the difference being that the aggregate and average circulation are smaller than for the state as a whole or for Chicago alone.

Morning and Evening Papers Outside of Chicago.

There seems to be a slight tendency in favor of the morning dailies, as regards numbers although the evening papers are much more numerous yet. The aggregate circulation of the evening dailies still far surpasses that of the morning papers, although the latter have the largest average circulation. The aggregate and average circulation of both classes is increasing.

The following table shows the importance of Chicago in the daily newspaper field of Illinois. Although only about twenty percent of the papers are located there, these possess about eighty percent of the circulation. The relation between Chicago and the rest of the state has not varied much in this particular since 1880.

	1880	1890	1900	1905	1910	1915
Percentage of papers in Chicago	27	22	19	18	20	21
Percentage in rest of state	73	78	81	82	80	79
Percentage of circ. in Chicago	81	83	76	83	78	79
Percentage of circ. in rest of state	19	17	24	17	22	21

Average Circulation Morning and Evening

Chicago dailies.

A. M.	P. M.
1905 - 54,962	1905 - 42,591
1910 - 39,772	1910 - 52,682
1915 - 58,661	1915 - 57,521

Dailies Outside of Chicago.

Year	Number	Agg. Circ. per issue	Ave. Circ. per issue
1880	50[17]	50,346	1,007
1890	94[17]	130,486	1,388
1900	160[17]	349,532	2,184
1905	158[17]	323,415	2,047
1910	155[17]	514,588	3,319
1915	136[18]	551,982[18]	4,058[18]

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[17] Computed from census figures by subtraction.

[18] Ayer's Annual - 1915. Figures lacking for 13 of the 136.

Morning and Evening Dailies Outside of Chicago.

	A. M.	Agg. Circ. per issue	Ave. Circ. per issue
1880			
1890			
1900	28		
1905	25[19]	89,116[19]	3564[21]
1910	32[19]	133,497[19]	4171[21]
1915[20]	24[20]	144,392[22]	6016[21]

Evening Dailies.

	P. M.	Agg. Circ. per issue	Ave. Circ. per issue
1880			
1890			
1900	132		
1905	133[23]	281,026[23]	2113[21]
1910	123[23]	381,091[23]	3098[21]
1915[20]	112[20]	407,590[24]	3639[21]

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[19]Computed from Census.

[20]Ayer's Annual 1915.

[21]Computed.

[22]Figures lacking for 3 of the 24 papers.

[23]Computed from Census 1910.

[24]Figures lacking for 10 papers of the 112.

Semi- and Tri-weeklies.

The semi- and tri-weeklies are relatively few in number, this type of publication being ordinarily a kind of transition between the weekly and the daily. For this reason it exhibits erratic tendencies not shown by the other kinds of publications. In a general way, however, it has followed the same line of development as the daily, issuing about 1900 from an era of expansion into one of concentration, although the aggregate circulation has diminished along with the number of papers. The average circulation has increased somewhat.

The semi- or tri-weekly is usually a small country paper, started in a field which was only a little larger than could be covered adequately by a weekly and not quite large enough to support a daily. These papers frequently resume their weekly form or else, finding the patronage encouraging, ultimately issue daily. For this reason we find the average circulation smaller than that of the weekly or the daily, the former of which includes many journals of wide circulation, published in Chicago, and the latter of which includes the big Chicago papers.

Semi- and Tri-weekly Combined.

Year	No. of papers reporting	Agg. Circ. per issue	Ave. Circ. per issue	Agg. Circ. per issue per 100 inhabitants	No. of inhabitants to each publication
1880	17[27]	35,639[26]	2096[27]	1.1[27]	181,051[27]
1890	22[27]	31,720 [26]	1441[27]	.8[27]	173,925[27]
1900	76[27]	176,058[26]	2316	3.6[27]	63,441[27]
1910	48[25]	138,165[25]	2899[27]	2.4[27]	117,470[27]

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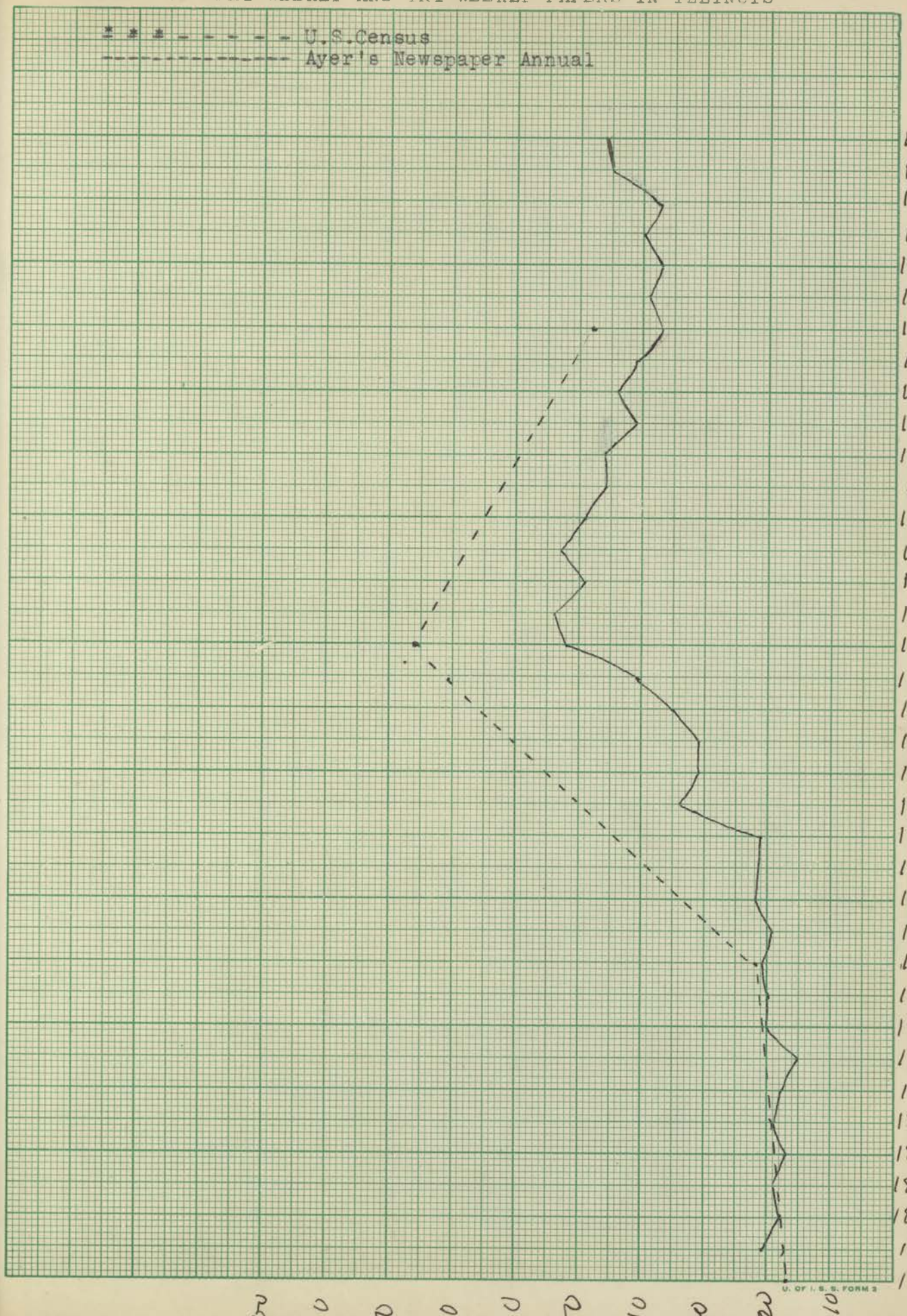
[25] 13th Census Vol. 10 p 796 and p 797.

[26] 12th Census Vol. 9 pp 1060-1061.

[27] Computed.

CHART II.

NUMBERS OF SEMI-WEEKLY AND TRI-WEEKLY PAPERS IN ILLINOIS



Semi- and Tri-weekly.[28]

1881 - 21	1899 - 41
1882 - 18	1900 - 52
1883 - 19	1901 - 54
1884 - 17	1902 - 49
1885 - 19	1903 - 53
1886 - 18	1904 - 49
1887 - 15	1905 - 46
1888 - 20	1906 - 46
1889 - 20	1907 - 41
1890 - 21	1908 - 44
1891 - 19	1909 - 41
1892 - 22	1910 - 37
1893 - 21	1911 - 39
1894 - 21	1912 - 37
1895 - 34	1913 - 40
1896 - 31	1914 - 37
1897 - 31	1915 - 45
1898 - 35	1916 - 46

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[28]Ayer's Newspaper Annuals.

Sunday Papers.

Reliable data concerning Sunday papers before 1900 are lacking, so that we cannot trace their development through the period when there were the greatest changes in process.

The census tells us that in 1880 there were but 13 papers published on Sunday in Illinois, but in 1890 there were 111. It was during this decade that the idea first gained headway, and it became a fad, soon discarded, so that ten years later we find the number had decreased to 43. Since then it has not varied much in either direction.

Circulation statistics are available only for 1905 and 1910, but these indicate that the Sunday paper is growing in both aggregate and average circulation.

The proportion of circulation held by the Chicago papers is very large, being, in 1909, 1,473,597 out of a total for the state of 1,616,506, leaving but 142,909 for the rest of the state. The average circulation for the Chicago papers in 1909 was 98,239, while that of the papers in the rest of the state was 6,213. The average circulation of Sunday papers is considerably greater than that of dailies, because fewer papers issue a Sunday edition and nearly everyone wants to read on that day. The aggregate circulation of Sunday papers is not so large, however, as that of dailies.

Ayer's Annual for 1915 gives the number of Sunday papers in Illinois as 49, of which 20 were located in Chicago. The aggregate circulation of these was somewhat in excess of the census figures for 1909, but the average circulation was less, owing to the greater number of papers. The table shows these data.

Sunday Newspapers.

	Number	Agg. Circ.	Ave. Circ.
1880	13[29]	Included in Dailies	
1890	111[30]	Included in Dailies	
1900	43[32]	Included in Dailies	
1905	40[31]	1,442,721[32]	36,068
1910	38[31]	1,616,506[32]	42,539
1915	49[33]	1,679,782	34,281

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[29]Census of 1880 - Special Report on N. and P. p 171.

[30]11th Census. Part III of Reports on Mfg., Industries pp 684-685.

[31]13th Census Vol. 10. p 793.

[32]13th Census Vol. 9. p 275.

[33]Ayer's Annual 1915. This average is obtained by using the total number of papers, although the circulation of four of them was not stated. The average circulation is, therefore, a little greater than the figure given.

Sunday Newspapers and Periodicals Including Sunday Editions of Dailies.[34]

	Number		Circulation	
	1909	1904	1909	1904
Illinois	38	40	1,616,506	1,442,721
Chicago	15	16	1,473,597	1,344,071

		No. papers	Agg. Circ.	Ave. Circ.
Chicago	1904	16	1,344,071	84,004
Chicago	1909	15	1,473,597	98,239
Rest of state	1904	24	98,650	4,110
Rest of state	1909	23	142,909	6,213

Weeklies.

The publications issued weekly are of two classes, country newspapers, and periodicals partaking of the magazine style, such as trade journals and the like. The distinction has been made by the census enumerators only for 1905 and 1910, so we have no reliable data covering a period sufficiently long to make it very valuable.

The census sets forth the difference thus: A weekly newspaper is a publication issued once a week and giving general or political news and family reading. A weekly periodical is a

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[34]Thirteenth Census. Vol. X. p. 793.

publication issued once a week and devoted chiefly to purposes other than the spread of general and political news.

In stating of tendencies of circulation of weeklies, we must bear this condition in mind, and in order that we may have the available information on the subject the census table is given next:[35]

Weekly Periodicals.

Number		Ave. Combined Circulation Per Issue.		Ave. Circulation Per Issue.	
1909	1904	1909	1904	1909	1904
121	160	3,159,772	3,199,712	26,113	19,998

Weekly Newspapers.

Number		Ave. Combined Circulation Per Issue		Ave. Circulation Per Issue	
1909	1904	1909	1904	1909	1904
897	729	1,848,818	1,392,331	2061	1498

We see that the weekly newspapers far outnumber the weekly periodicals, although the latter possess a greater aggregate and much greater average circulation per issue. In spite of this, the newspapers appear to be gaining in aggregate circulation more rapidly than the periodicals, and to be decreasing in numbers less rapidly. However, the five year period is too short to admit of adequate comparison or deduction of tendencies, the chief value of

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[35]Thirteenth Census. Vol. X. p. 795.

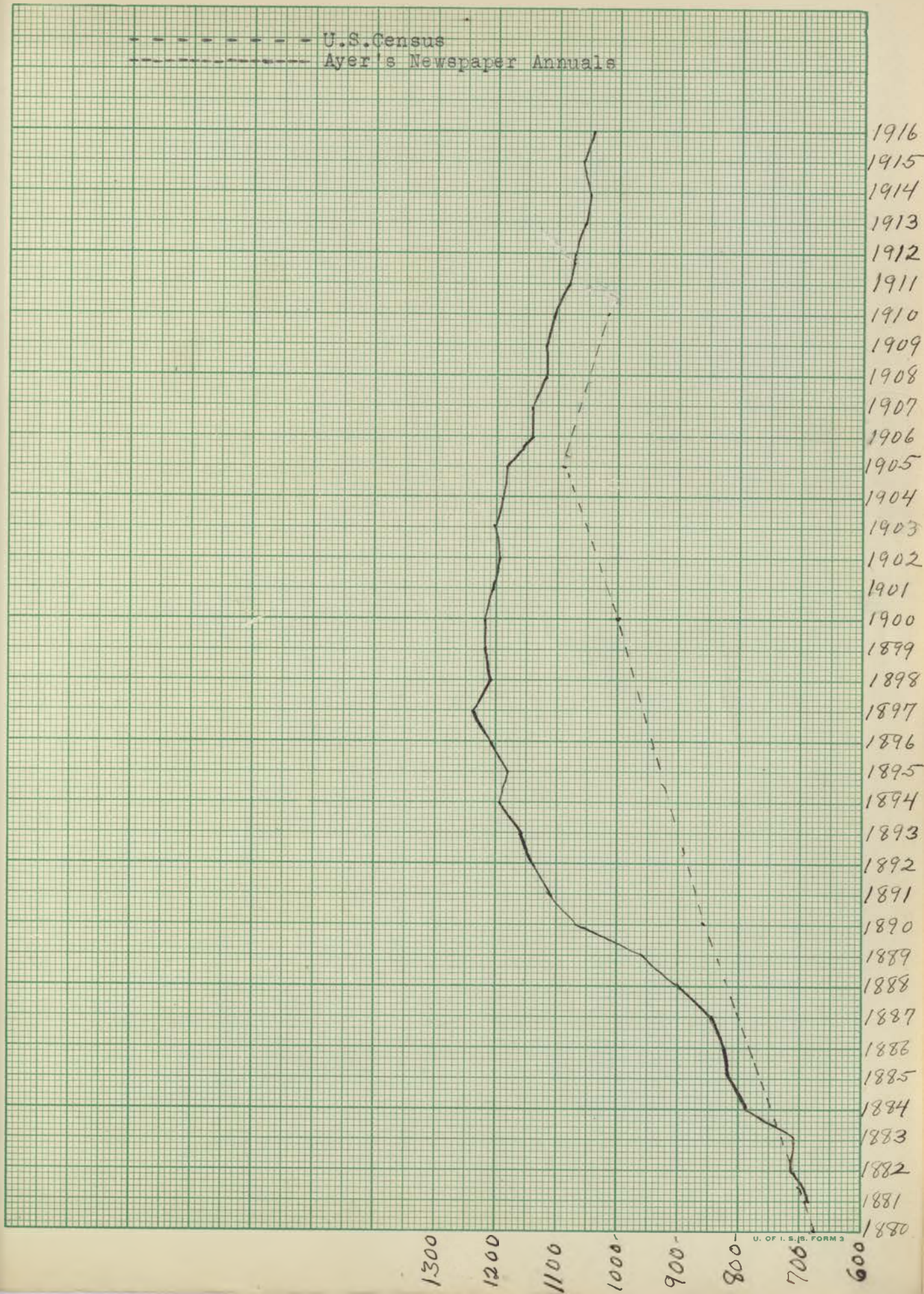
the figures being to show that the weekly newspaper has a smaller circulation than the periodical, so that figures for previous censuses, which include both classes without differentiation, are modified by this fact.

From Ayer's Newspaper Annual we can see the same tendency as to numbers, although circulation statistics are unreliable.

Weekly Newspapers & Periodicals in Illinois.

N. & P.	Newspapers	Periodicals	N.&P.	News.	Peri.
1881-669	574	95	1899-1213		
1882-717			1900-1212	1076	136
1883-715			1901-1204		
1884-782	676	106	1902-1199		
1885-812			1903-1204		
1886-824	729	95	1904-1192		
1887-849			1905-1185	1017	168
1888-903			1906-1143		
1889-962			1907-1141		
1890-1076	816	260	1908-1123		
1891-1114			1909-1120		
1892-1150			1910-1107	955	152
1893)			1911-1084		
) 1198					
1894)			1912-1073		
1895-1186	967	219	1913-1056	914	142
1896-1210			1914-1052		
1897-1238			1915-1062	908	154
1898-1205			1916-1040		

NUMBERS OF WEEKLY PAPERS IN ILLINOIS 1880-1916 CHART III.



From these figures it would appear that the weekly newspaper reached its point of greatest expansion about 1900, while the weekly periodical arrived there some five years or so earlier. On the other hand, the newspapers have been steadily declining in numbers, while the periodicals seem to have been holding their own pretty well for the last fifteen years. This is probably due to the growth of class journals, published chiefly in Chicago.

Having established the relation existing between the periodical and the newspaper published weekly, we may examine the available figures relating to the combined classes of publications.

Year	Number Reporting.	Agg. Circ. per issue.	Ave. Circ. per issue.	Circ. per 100 population	population to each weekly publication
1880	681[38]	1,527,042[36]	2269[36]	49[38]	4519[38]
1890	858[36]	3,437,663[36]	4007[36]	89[38]	4470[38]
1900	1000[36]	3,866,983[36]	3867[36]	77[38]	4821[38]
1905	1089[37]	4,592,043[37]	4217[38]		
1910	1018[37]	5,008,590[37]	4920[38]	88[38]	5538[38]

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[36] 12th census Vol. 9, pp. 1060-1061.

[37] 13th census Vol. 10, p. 794.

[38] Computed.

From these figures we can see that the number increased quite rapidly up to 1900, since which date it has declined, although the aggregate circulation and average circulation have increased, showing the tendency to concentration of the industry in larger establishments. The circulation of weekly publications is increasing faster than the population, there being in 1910 for every 100 persons in the state 88 weekly papers issued each week. But in numbers, population is outrunning the papers, as for each weekly publication there is an increasing number of people, indicating that each publication serves more people, when the figures are taken in conjuction with the circulation statistics.

Distribution

The weekly is the most widely distributed form of publication in Illinois, not a county in the state since 1880 having been without at least one such newspaper. Each county seat has had one or more weekly newspapers every year, and other towns in most of the counties have supported some.

The weekly is the typical American newspaper, especially in the newer sections where the community was not yet sufficiently developed to support a daily. The fact that Illinois is so definitely divided between Chicago and the rest of the state has made for a strong development of the weekly. Outside of Chicago there are few large cities in the state, the population being distributed very largely according to the agricultural status of the community. In these sections the weekly newspaper has flourished, until Illinois ranks first in the number of weeklies, and has since 1900. In 1890 Illinois was second to New York

and in 1880 likewise. In 1900 Pennsylvania was second and in 1904 and 1909 New York was. Regarding the aggregate circulation of weeklies Illinois has always ranked high, as is indicated by the following table.

Percentage which the aggregate circulation in each state forms of total for United States.

	1880	1890	1900	1905	1910
New York	26.2[39]	21.9[39]	31.6[39]	14.3[41]	16.5[41]
Illinois	9.4[39]	11.9[39]	11.3[40] or 9.7[39]	12.7[40]	12.2[41]
Pennsylvania	12.3[39]	10.8[39]	9.3[39]	14.6[41]	13.0[41]

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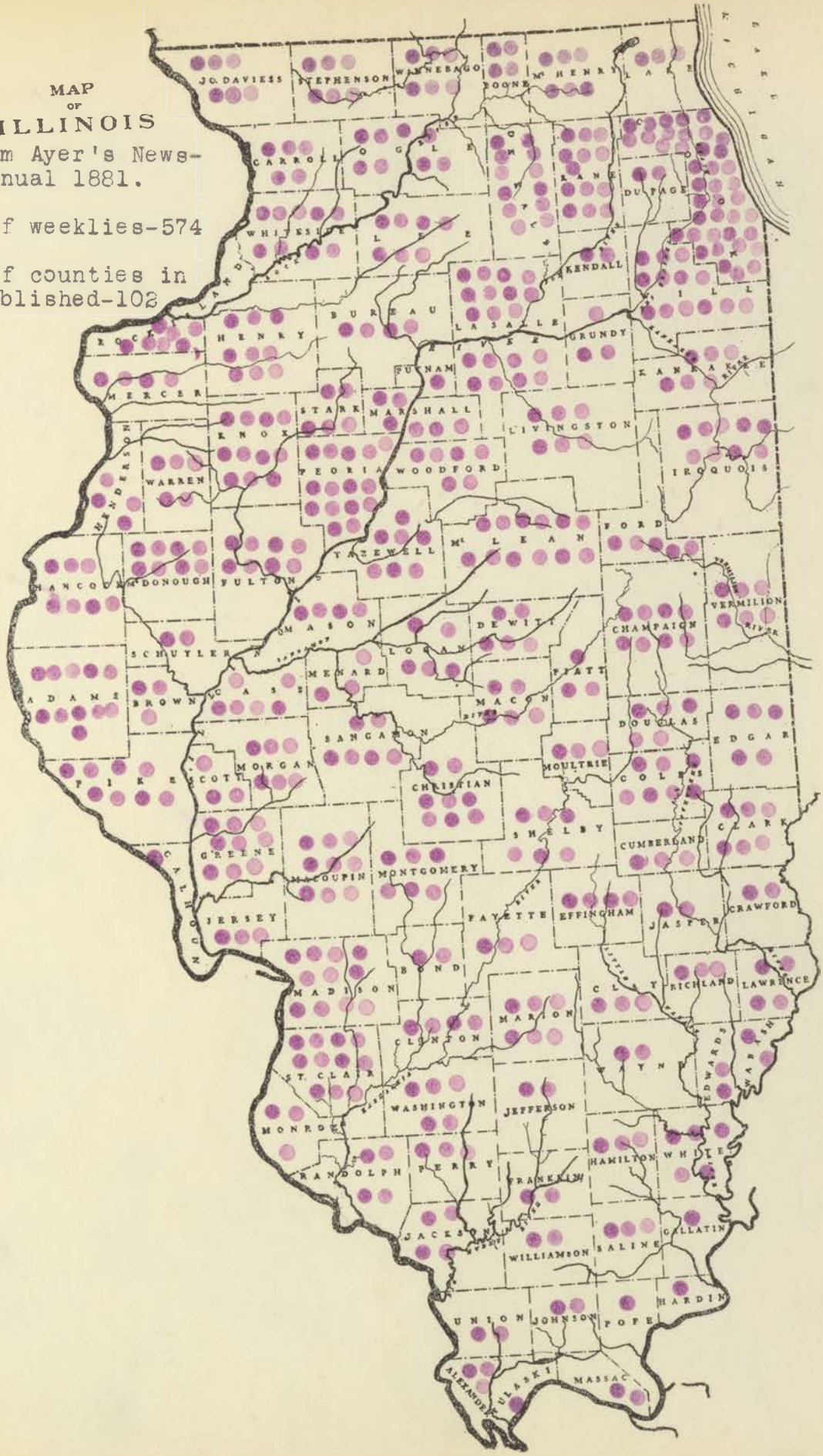
[39]12th Census Vol. 9, p. 1064.

[40]Bulletin 79, p.54.

[41]Computed.

WEEKLY PAPERS IN ILLINOIS AND THEIR DISTRIBUTION 1880. MAP 6.



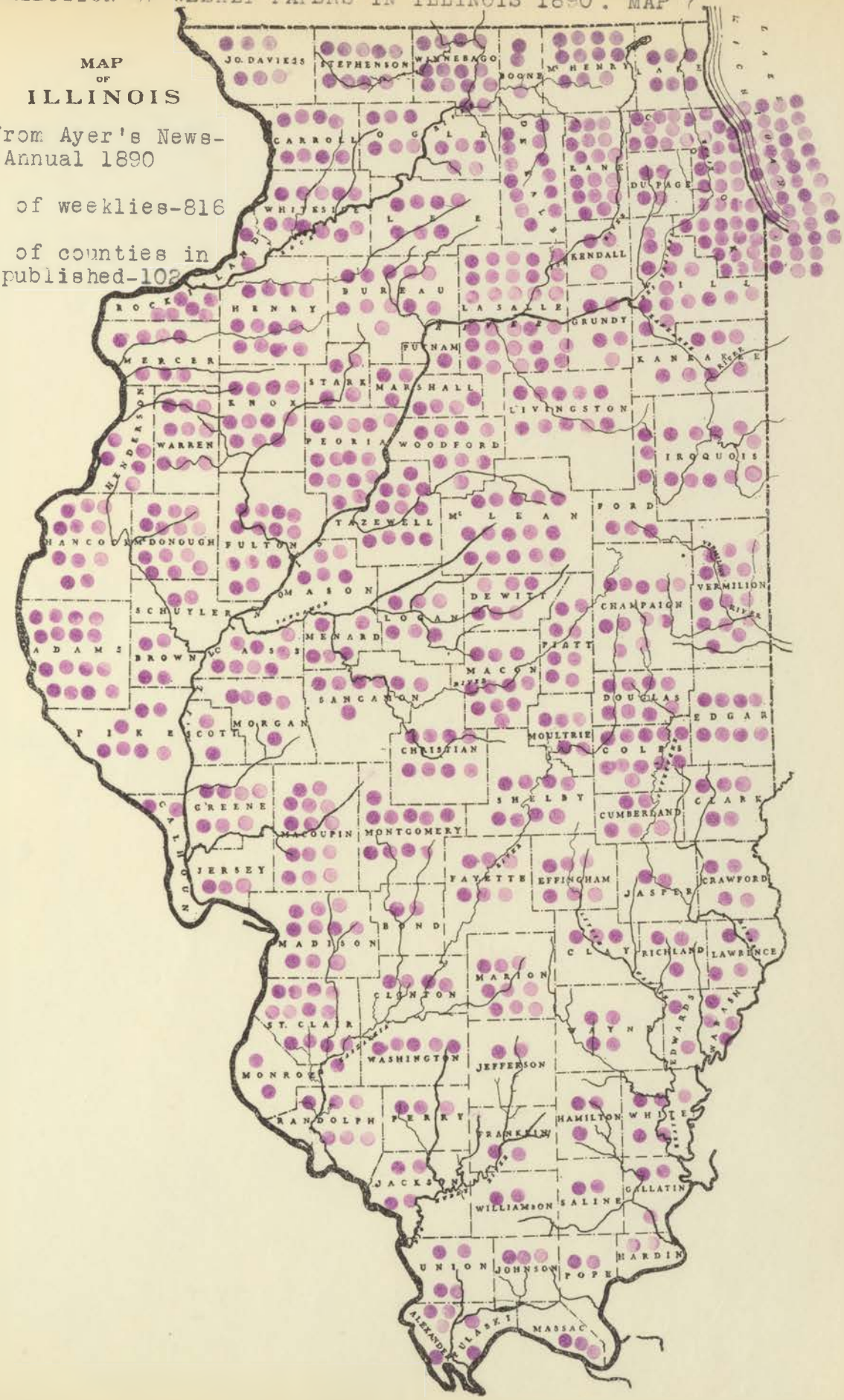
DISTRIBUTION OF WEEKLY PAPERS IN ILLINOIS 1890. MAP 7

MAP
OF
ILLINOIS

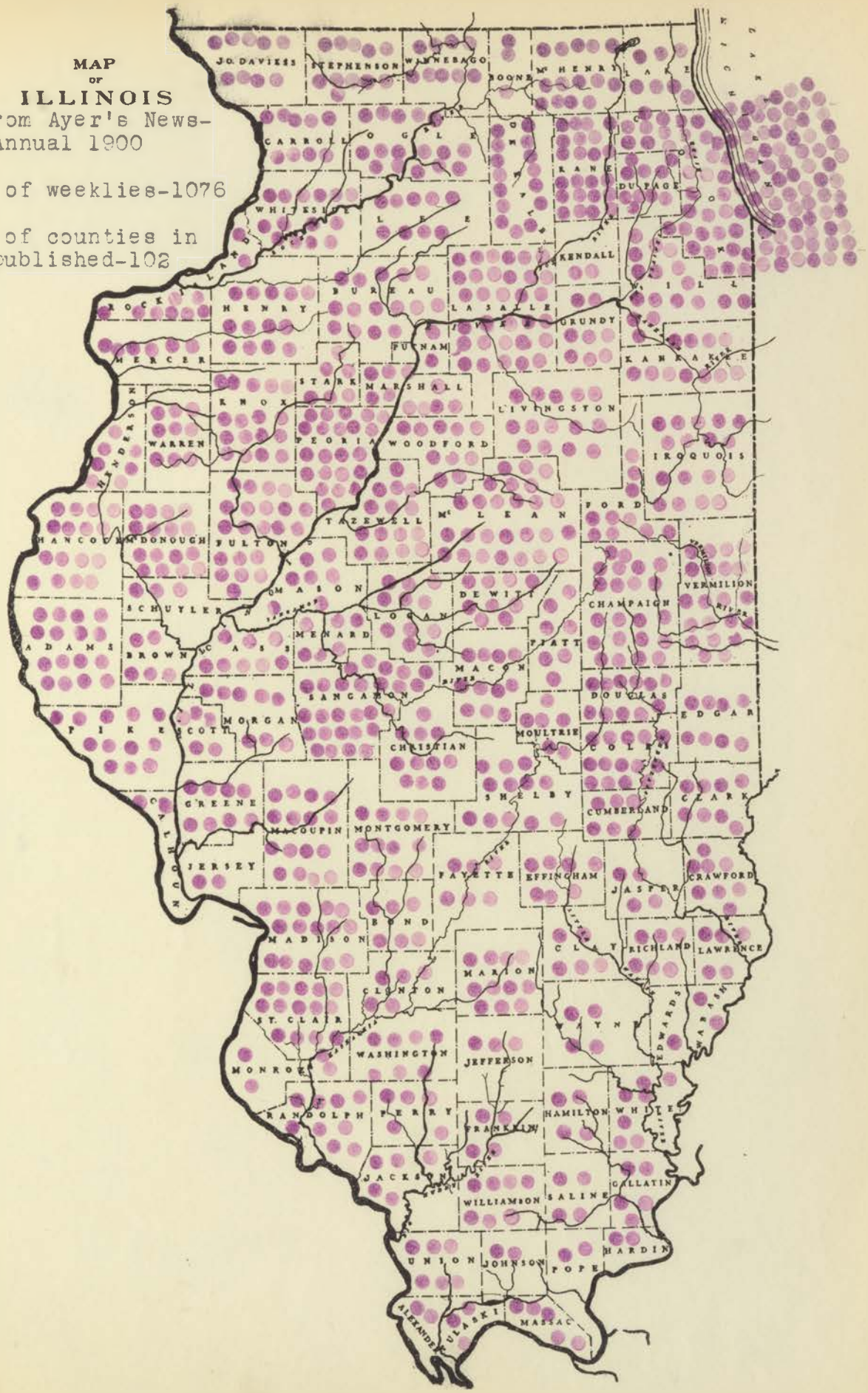
Data from Ayer's Newspaper Annual 1890

Number of weeklies-816

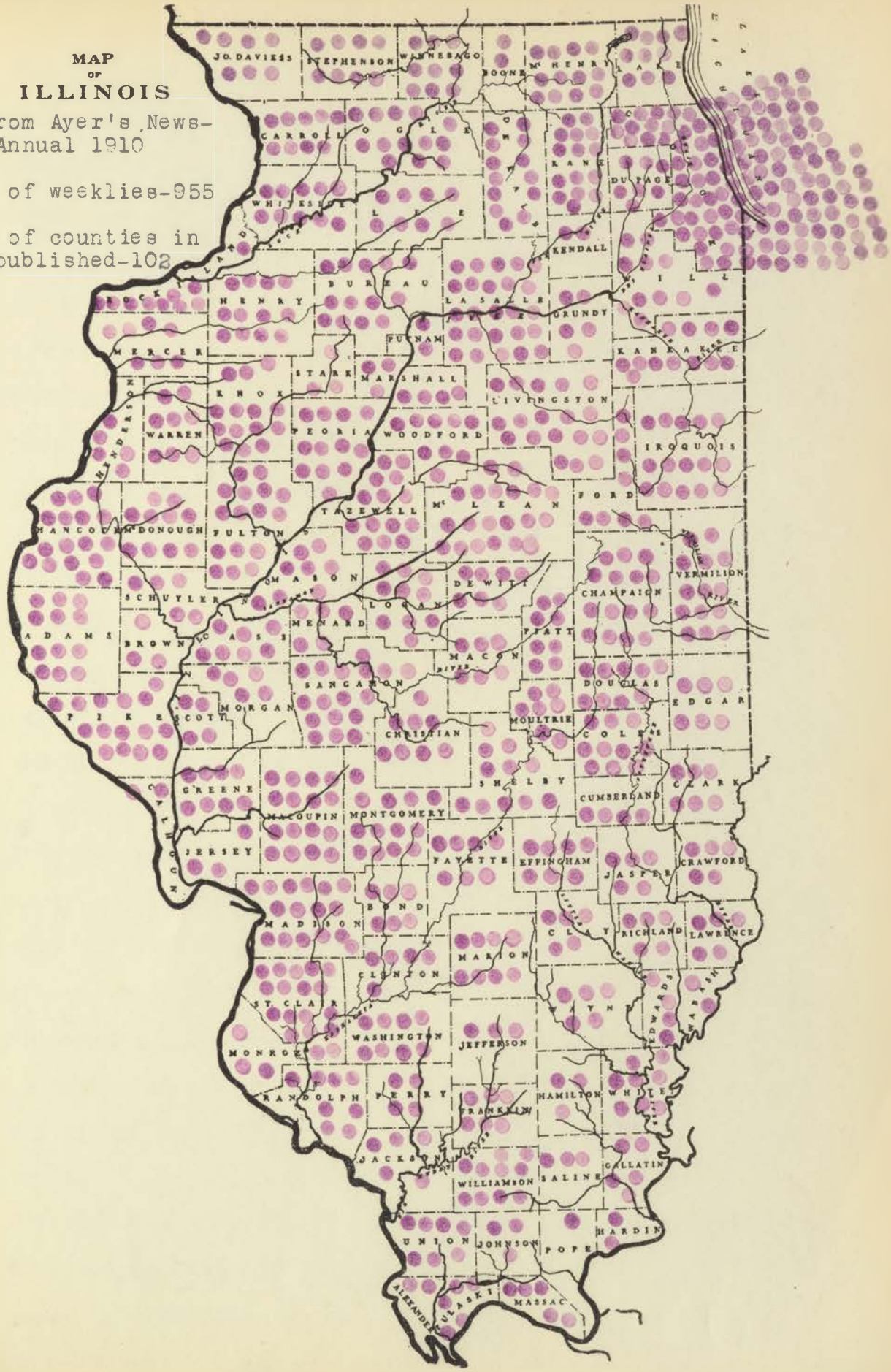
Number of counties in which published-102



DISTRIBUTION OF WEEKLY PAPERS IN ILLINOIS 1900. MAP 8.



DISTRIBUTION OF WEEKLY PAPERS IN ILLINOIS 1910. MAP 9.



The distribution of weeklies with reference to the size of the towns in which they are published is shown by the next table.

Despite its inconsistencies, due to the comparison of data gleaned from two different sources, it shows several things.

In the first place it makes clear that in practically every place of 1500 inhabitants or over at least one weekly is published. In the smaller places, not so large a proportion of the towns support papers, those under 500 inhabitants being for the most part without a newspaper of any kind.

In the second place, the data for the two years as compared give evidence that there has been a tendency toward the invasion by the weekly of the smaller places, which theretofore had not enjoyed that luxury. This tendency is noticeable in the places having less than one thousand inhabitants. The total number of places where weeklies were published increased from 302 to 609 in the thirty years between 1880 and 1910, while the total number of places in the state increased only from 791 to 1066.

This movement into the smaller places is the natural result of a number of causes. Among these may be mentioned the increase in the agricultural population surrounding the towns, which has made a larger subscription list attainable. Not only the number of inhabitants but their intellectual and financial condition has had a bearing on the situation. More of the people can read, and many more are able to surrender the time and subscription price necessary to the enjoyment of the local paper.

The increase in advertising patronage has made the publisher less dependent upon the subscriber, so that the price of the weekly paper is lower than it used to be.

On the supply side of the proposition we have the improved mechanical means of getting out a paper, including the lower cost of paper, type and machinery, as well as that of plate matter, so popular with the weekly papers.

These factors have made it possible for the country printer, who carries on practically all the work himself, to make a profit where the publisher of thirty years previous could not do so. The greatest number of weeklies is published in places having between 501 and 1000 inhabitants. This is the typical weekly, although there are a few more published in the places having less than 501 and those having between 1001 and 1500, combined.

The greatest absolute increase in the number of weekly papers in any of the population groups indicated has occurred in places of between 501 and 1000 in habitants. The largest relative increase occurred in the places having less than 501 inhabitants.

The total growth in numbers of weeklies between 1880 and 1910 took place largely in Chicago and in places having no paper at all previously. Chicago gained 79, and the rest of the state 244. Weeklies were published in 311 more places in 1910 than in 1880, indicating that at least 67 papers must have suspended or moved. Of these 244 gained, 169 of them were in places of less than 1000 inhabitants.

In the larger places, those between five and fifty thousand, the weeklies are usually published in connection with dailies. When the publisher of a weekly paper decides to supply the demand for a daily in his community, it is common to continue the weekly for such of the former subscribers as do not care to patronize the daily.

The tendency during the whole period was toward a concentration of population in the larger places. For this reason much of the gain made in the numbers of papers in the larger places is due simply to the gain in population, while the increase in the number of papers in the smaller places was due to the starting of papers in places which up to that time had supported no paper.

One very marked tendency is the increase in the number of places supporting but one paper. In 1880 there were 164, while in 1910 there were 427. The gain in these "one-paper" towns was proportionally much greater than in the number of papers, showing both the trend toward concentration and toward the pushing out into unoccupied territory.

The following table illustrates these points:

Figures indicate population of places.														
No. of places	1880	408	190	68	41	17	16	9	5	4	2	9	10	2
No. of places where weeklies are published	1880	33	75	58	43	19	23	9	5	3	2	8	11	2
No. of places	1910	425	276	119	55	48	29	15	12	7	8	28	13	8
No. of places where weeklies are published	1910	99	189	90	47	45	28	12	12	7	7	26	14	8

Figures indicate population of places.														
No. of places	9	19	8	3	1	1								
No. of places where weeklies are published	9	21	8	3	1									
No. of places	11	13	8	3	1	1								
No. of places where weeklies are published	11	14	8	3	1									

Figures indicate population of places.	100,001 & up	50,001-100,000	25,001-50,000	10,001-25000	7,501-10,000	5,001-7,500	4,501-5,000	4,001-4,500	3,501-4,000	3,001-3,500	2,501-3,000	2,001-2,500	1,501-2,000	1,001-1,500	501-1,000	1-500	Total
No. of places	1		2	9	10	9	2	4	5	9	16	17	41	68	190	408	791
No. of places where weeklies are published	1		2	9	11	8	2	3	5	9	23	19	43	58	75	33	302
No. of places	1	3	8	19	13	28	8	7	12	15	29	48	55	119	276	425	1066
No. of places where weeklies are published	1	3	8	21	14	26	7	7	12	12	28	45	47	90	189	99	609

The number of places is from the census reports.

The number of places where weeklies are published is taken from Ayer's Annuals.

Population of places	1-500	501-1000	1001-1500	1501-2000	2001-2500	2501-3000	3001-3500	3501-4000	4001-4500	4501-5000	5,001-7,500	7,501-10,000	10,001-25,000	25,001-50,000	50,001-100,000	Over 100,000	Total
No. of weeklies 1880	35	92	84	74	42	47	24	12	8	6	27	39	48	19		108	
No. of places published 1880	33	75	58	43	19	23	9	5	3	2	8	10	9	2		1	
No. of places having only one weekly 1880	31	62	35	18	3	8	2	1	0	0	4	0	0	0	0	0	
No. of weeklies 1910	100	196	108	69	84	58	22	26	17	13	50	36	60	40	22	187	
No. of places published 1910	99	189	90	47	45	28	12	12	7	7	26	14	21	8	3	1	
No. of places having only one weekly 1910	98	182	74	26	17	7	3	2	1	2	7	4	4	0	0	0	

All from Ayer's Annual 1881 and 1911.

Monthlies.

The monthly is even more than the daily an urban publication. Monthlies concentrate in centers where literary material, advertising and sales can best be obtained. For that reason Chicago is the greatest center for the publication of monthlies in Illinois, practically all of the monthlies published in Illinois being printed there. In 1905, out of a total circulation of 6,344,791 for all the monthlies in the state, those published in Chicago had 4,749,524 or 78%.

The number of monthlies published in the state is still increasing, each decade showing a decided gain over the previous one. The aggregate circulation is gaining even more rapidly, having more than trebled from 1900 to 1910. With the increase in aggregate circulation has gone the increase in average circulation, this almost doubling each ten years. The tendency toward concentration into larger establishments is thus very marked in the case of the monthly.

The monthly enjoyed its great opportunity from 1890 to 1900, when the use of the half tone illustration came into general use and the perfecting press was adapted to the requirements of the new methods of printing illustrations. These two factors made on the one hand the monthly magazine more attractive, and on the other hand, made it possible to print it more cheaply. Prices fell, editions increased and new publications arose.

The field of the monthly is not limited as is that of the daily or weekly. Time is available for the printing of an edition far enough in advance so that it can be distributed from

news stands all over the country on the same day. It is not necessary, in other words, that the contents be so fresh. It is primarily a literary medium as distinguished from a news medium.

The following table shows the progress made by the monthly:

Year	No. of papers reporting.	Agg. Circ. per issue	Ave. Circ. per issue	Agg. Circ. per issue per 100 inhabitants	No. of inhabitants to each publication.
1880	89[44]	401,646[42]	4,463[42]	13[44]	34,582[44]
1890	182[44]	1,627,250[42]	8,941[42]	42[44]	21,020[44]
1900	219[44]	3,072,932[42]	14,032[42]	63[44]	22,016[44]
1910	289[43]	9,492,099[43]	32,842[44]	170[44]	19,510[44]

The growth of the monthly in Illinois has been relatively more rapid than in any of the other leading states. The following table indicates this clearly. Illinois in 1880 was surpassed by New York, Pennsylvania, Maine, Massachusetts and Ohio, while in 1910 New York alone produced more monthlies than Illinois.

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[42] 12th Census, Vol. 9, pages 1060-1061.

[43] 13th Census, Vol. 10 pages 796-797.

[44] Computed.

State	1880[42]	1890[42]	1900[42]	1905[43]	1910[43]
New York	2,903,527	6,990,400	16,927,062	28,217,126	25,635,615
Illinois	401,646	1,627,250	3,072,932	6,344,791	9,492,099
Pennsylvania	1,606,073	2,763,798	3,246,779	4,385,683	6,107,571
Maine	1,036,200	1,964,659	6,120,490	6,622,541	3,960,766
Massachusetts	574,538				
Ohio	622,531				

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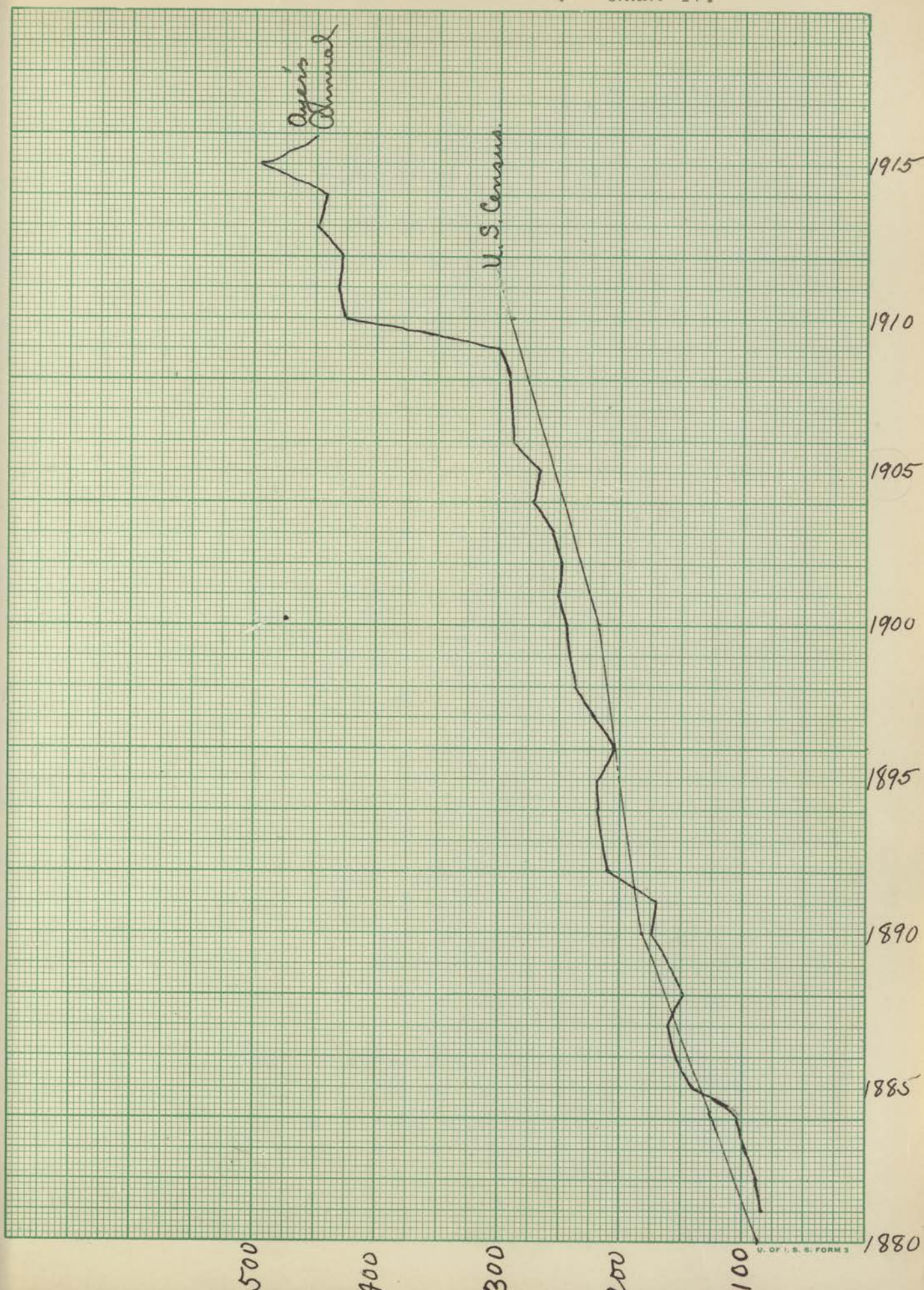
[42] 12th Census Vol. 9 p. 1064.

[43] 13th Census Vol. 10 p. 797.

NUMBER OF MONTHLY PUBLICATIONS. CHART IV.



The comparison of the figures from Ayer's Annual with those of the United States Census shows that the former conform very closely to the latter. The development since 1910 is the most striking feature, however. If the data in Ayer's can be believed, the next year after the census was taken witnessed a tremendous increase in the number of monthly publications. It appears likely therefore, that the next census will show that Illinois has enjoyed a continued rapid growth in this department of the publishing industry.

Year	No. of Monthlies.	Year	No. of Monthlies.
1881	87	1900	246
1882	88	1901	251
1883	100	1902	249
1884	111	1903	256
1885	139	1904	274
1886	155	1905	267
1887	159	1906	288
1888	146	1907	292
1889	163	1908	294
1890	176	1909	301
1891	170	1910	430
1892	209	1911	438
1893) 1894)	213	1912	433
1895	218	1913	452
1896	205	1914	446
1897	225	1915	494
1898	238	1916	451
1899	241		

Quarterlies.

The following table indicates that this form of publication is apparently on the increase in Illinois, the decade from 1900 to 1910 witnessing a gain of over 100% in number, and a substantial gain in aggregate circulation. The average circulation, however, fell off, indicating that many of the new ones started had not yet attained any considerable subscription list.

This is the publication which deals primarily with topics of scientific interest, appealing to a limited class of readers. The extent of territory over which they may circulate is practically unlimited, so that many of them boast a large circulation.

Ayer's Annual lists very few of them, as most of them do not carry general advertisements, so we can make no comparisons between the figures of the census and Ayer's.

Examples of the quarterly type of publication are American Journal of Theology, American Journal of Semitic Languages and Literatures, The Monist, and Sigma Chi Quarterly.

Year	No.	Circulation per issue	Average circulation per issue.
1880	21[47]	31,500[45]	1,500[45]
1890	29[47]	1,867,800[45]	64,407[45]
1900	23[47]	1,683,434[45]	73,193[45]
1905		1,898,000[46]	
1910	50[46]	1,967,558[46]	39,351[47]

"All Other" Classes.

This includes periodicals issued at irregular intervals, such as bi-monthly, semi-quarterly, etc. There are never more than a few of these, altho their number seems to be increasing along with the gain made in the numbers of all publications. Their total and average circulation likewise show a steady increase.

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[45] 12th Census Vol. 9 pp. 1060-1061.

[46] 13th Census Vol. 10 pp. 796 and 798.

[47] Computed.

The table:

Year	Number	Aggregate Circulation per issue	Average Circulation per issue
1880	22[50]	54,525[48]	2,478[48]
1890	29[50]	152,300[48]	5,252[48]
1900	33[50]	180,874[48]	5,481[48]
1905		133,643[49]	
1910	45[49]	276,335[49]	6,141[50]

All Classes.

The different classes of publications, as we have seen, exhibit practically the same tendencies; namely, a period of rapid expansion up to about 1900, followed by a decade of concentration; a steady increase in aggregate circulation and in average circulation, this aggregate circulation increasing faster than the population, so that for each 100 inhabitants more papers and periodicals are issued.

In adding the different classes together and considering them as a whole we can see the same tendencies in operation, as the table and chart show.

Judged by the standard of aggregate circulation, Illinois ranks second only to New York, having advanced from third

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[48] 12th Census Vol. 9 pp. 1060-1061.

[49] 13th Census Vol. 10 pp. 796 and 798.

[50] Computed.

place between 1900 and 1910. In 1880 Illinois ranked fourth, and in 1890 and 1900 third. The advance, actual and proportional, made during the decade from 1900 to 1910 was greater than that made by either New York or Pennsylvania, indicating that Chicago is to be reckoned with as a publishing center of increasing importance.

Date	No. of N. & P. all classes reporting.	Agg. Circ. per issue	Ave. Circ. per issue per N. or P.	Agg. Circ. per issue per 100 inhabitants	No. of inhabitants to each publication
1880	1017[53]	2,421,275[53]	2,380	77	3016
1890	1241[53]	7,891,219[53]	6,358	206	3083
1900	1548[53]	10,429,368[53]	6,737	216	3114[52]
1905	1753	15,237,805	8,692		
1910	1682[54]	20,680,258[54]	12,295	366	3352

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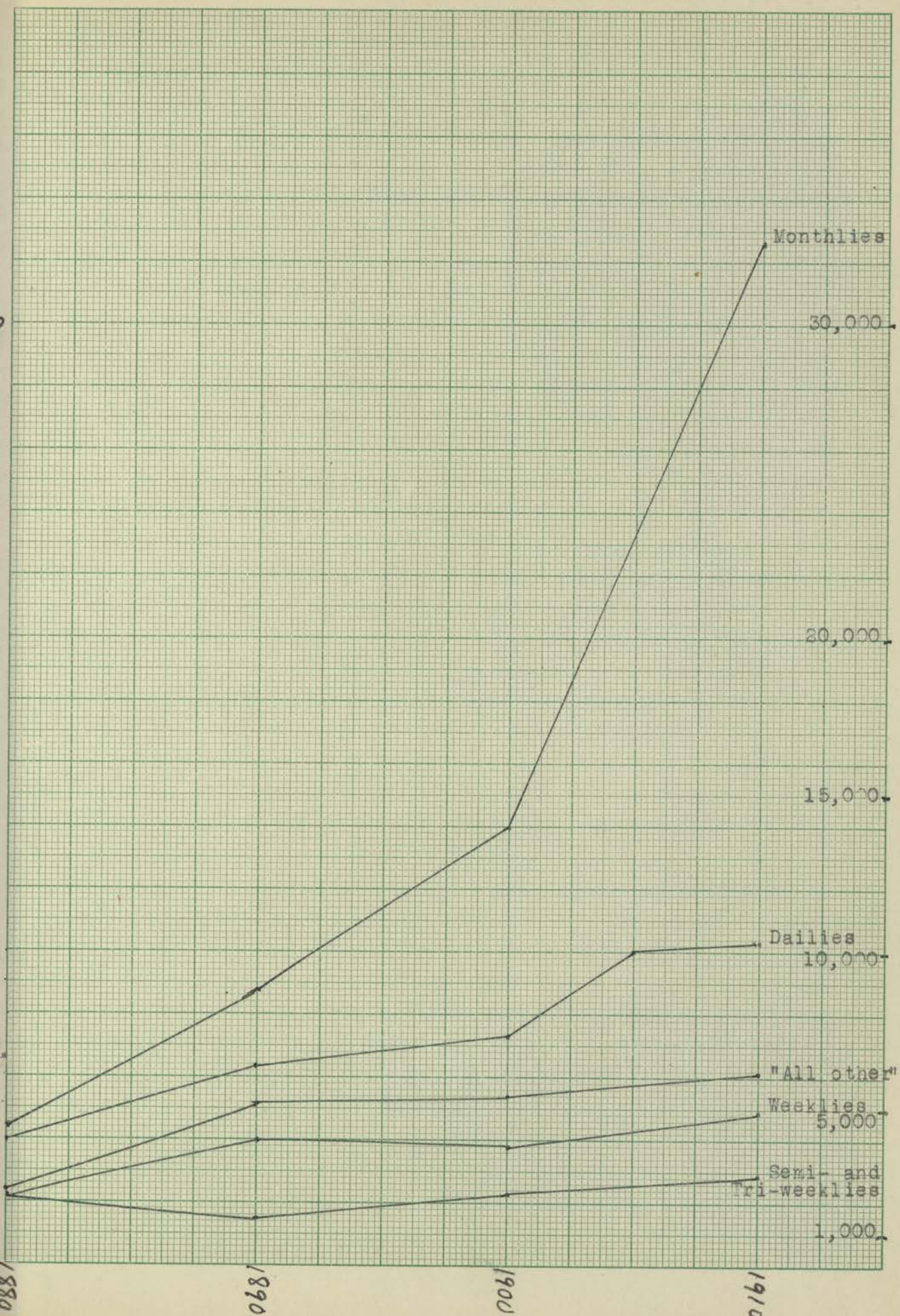
[52]Thirteenth Census Vol. 10 p. 786.

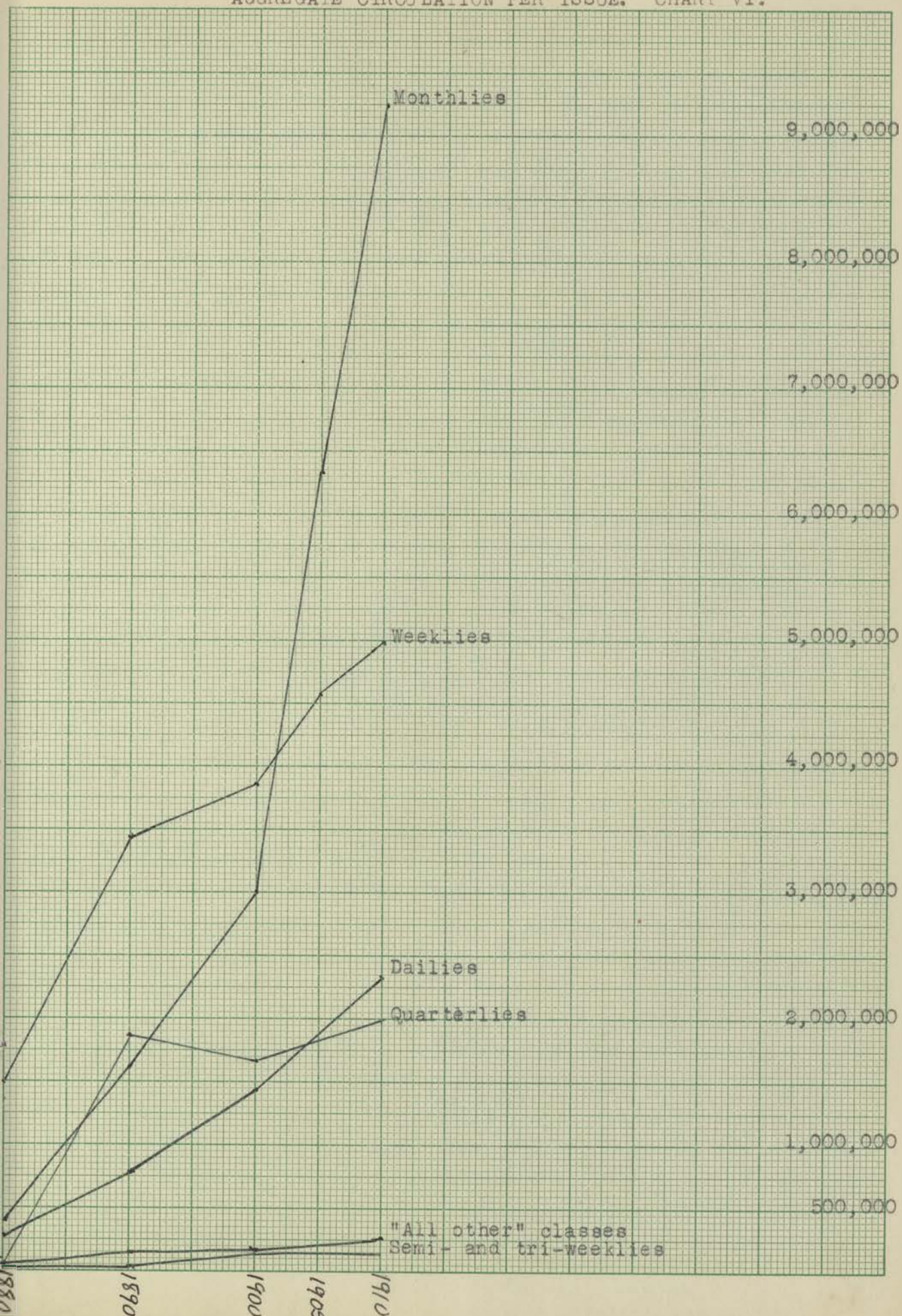
[53]Twelfth Census Vol. 9 p. 1056.

[54]Compiled from returns for each class of newspapers and periodicals in Thirteenth Census Vol. 10.

AVERAGE CIRCULATION PER ISSUE. CHART V.



AGGREGATE CIRCULATION PER ISSUE. CHART VI.



Aggregate Circulation per issue by states.

State	1880[55]	1890[55]	1900[55]	1910
New York	9,374,134	18,031,391	37,626,095	43,953,617[56]
Illinois	2,421,275	7,891,219	10,429,368	20,823,166[57]
Penn.	5,031,061	9,472,083	11,280,367	19,674,336[58]
Ohio	3,093,931			

Publications in Languages Other than English.

In 1909 there were in the state of Illinois 173 publications printed in languages other than English.[59] These 173 publications boasted a combined circulation of 1,457,367, which figures help to make it clear that there are within the borders of the commonwealth many people whose familiarity with some other language is greater than with the English. The average circulation of these periodicals was 8424 in 1909, whereas that of all the newspapers and periodicals in the state, considered together, was but 1238. In 1904 there were 149 publications with a combined circulation of 1,184,355 per issue, or an average of 7948. These are the only circulation statistics available, but they serve to show the importance of this phase of the industry.

The number of these publications has increased steadily since 1880, the census figures being as follows:[60]

1880... 97 1890... 146 1905... 149 1909... 173.

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[55] 12th Census Vol. IX p. 1064.
[56] 13th Census Vol. IX p. 829.
[57] Ibid. p. 275.
[58] Ibid. p. 1072.
[59] Ibid. Vol. X p. 792.
[60] Ibid.

Twenty-one of these papers were dailies in 1909, their aggregate circulation per issue being 271,500 and the average circulation 12,928. This is somewhat larger than the average circulation for the daily papers of the state, considered together, which in 1909 was 11,979. These imposing circulation figures are made possible by the fact that the majority of the foreign language publications are printed in Chicago and reach a circle of readers throughout several states.

The daily papers flourished during the five years from 1904 to 1909, their total circulation increasing from 200,180 and their average circulation from 9532, while their number remained the same --twenty-one.

Turning to the data compiled from Ayer's Newspaper Annual we find that their figures as to the number of these publications are lower than those furnished by the census, probably because they do not list papers which do not carry advertisements. The figures from Ayer's follow:

1880[61]

Number of Publications in Languages Other Than English.

Language	In Chicago			Rest of State			Total		
	Dly.	Wkly.	Other.	Dly.	Wkly.	Other.	Dly.	Wkly.	Other.
German	3	12	4	4	28		7	40	4
Bohemian	1	3	1				1	3	1
Scandi-navian	1	10	2				1	10	2
Polish		2						2	
French					1			1	
Total	5	27	7	4	29		9	56	7

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[61] Ayer's Newspaper Annual 1881.

1890[62]

Language	In Chicago			Rest of State			Total		
	Dly.	Wkly	Other	Dly.	Wkly.	Other	Dly.	Wkly.	Other
German	3	15	12	6	39		9	54	12
Scandinavian	2	18	2		2	1	2	20	3
Bohemian	2	5					2	5	
Italian		2						2	
French		2						2	
Polish		5						5	
Spanish			1						1
Hollandish		1						1	
Total	7	48	15	6	41	1	13	89	16

[62] Ayer's Newspaper Annual, 1890.

1896[63]

Language.	In Chicago			Rest of State			Total		
	Dly.	Wkly	Other.	Dly.	Wkly.	Other.	Dly.	Wkly.	Other.
German	7	19	8	5	36	1	12	55	9
Welsh		1						1	
Bohemian	3	6					3	6	
Scandi-navian	1	19	2		3		1	22	2
French		2			1	1		3	1
Polish	1	9					1	9	
Spanish			1						1
Italian		1						1	
Hebrew	1	1					1	1	
Lithuanian		1						1	
Hollandish		1						1	
Total	13	60	11	5	40	2	18	100	13

[63]Ayer's Newspaper Annual, 1896

1900[64]

Language	In Chicago			Rest of State			Total		
	Daily	Wkly	Other	Dly	Wkly	Other	Dly	Wkly	Other
German	7	15	7	6	43	3	13	58	10
Scandinavian	1	20			3		1	23	
Polish	1	12	1				1	12	1
Bohemian	3	8	4				3	8	4
Hebrew	1	2					1	2	
Italian		3						3	
Croatian		2						2	
French		1						1	
Spanish			1						1
Lithuanian		1						1	
Hollandish		1						1	
Total	13	65	13	6	46	3	19	111	16

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64 Ayer's Newspaper Annual, 1900.

1905[65]

	In Chicago			In Rest of State			Total for State		
Language	D.	W.	Other	D.	W.	Other	D.	W.	Other
German	5	12	4	7	36	3	12	48	7
Italian		2	1					2	1
Bohemian	2	8	3				2	8	3
Scandinavian	1	15			2	3	1	17	3
Hebrew	1	2					1	2	
Slovenian		1			1			2	
Lithuanian		2						2	
Polish		4	1		1			5	1
Hollandish		2						2	
Total	9	48	9	7	40	6	16	88	15

Grand Total 119

[65] Ayer's Newspaper Annual, 1905

1910[66]

Language	In Chicago			Rest of State			Total for State		
	Dly	Wkly	Others	Dly	Wkly	Others	Dly	Wkly	Others
German	5	15	6	6	34	5	11	49	11
Scandinavian	1	16	3		5	4	1	21	7
Bohemian	4	9	4			1	4	9	5
Polish	4	7	2				4	7	2
Slovenian		2			1			3	
Croatian		2						2	
Italian		2						2	
Jewish	1	2					1	2	
French		1	1					1	1
Greek		3						3	
Esperanto			1						1
Lithuanian		2						2	
Slovak		3						3	
Spanish			1						1
Hollandish		1			1			2	
Bulgarian					1			1	
	15	65	18	6	42	10	21	107	28

66 Ayer's Newspaper Annual, 1910.

1915[67]

Language	In Chicago D.	W.	Other	In Rest of State D.	W.	Other	Total for State D.	W.	Other
German	7	26	8	2	10	2	9	36	10
Polish	4	10					4	10	
Italian		5						5	
Bohemian	4	9	5			3	4	9	8
Scandinavian	1	17	2		4	4	1	21	6
Greek		3						3	
Croatain-Servian	2	3	1				2	3	1
French		1						1	
Lithuanian	2	2					2	2	
Slovenian		3			1			4	
Yiddish	3	3					3	3	
Slovak	2	2					2	2	
Hollandish		2			1			3	
Hungarian		1						1	
Bulgarian					1			1	
Total	25	87	16	2	17	9	27	104	25

Grand Total of all Kinds 156

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67 Ayer's Newspaper Annual, 1915.

These tables disclose several interesting tendencies. One of these is the increase in the number of such publications, which has more than doubled during the thirty-four years, growing from 72 in 1880 to 156 in 1914.

Another evident trend is toward the daily paper, in which respect the newly arrived immigrant manifests his desire to get his news while it is still fresh. It shows an interest in current affairs which is far from a bad omen.

But the most important change is the one in the languages represented, corresponding, of course, to the shifting character of immigration. In 1880 papers were published in but five languages, German, Scandinavian, Bohemian, Polish and French in the order of their importance. Fifty-one of the 72 publications were in German, 32 of these 51 being published outside of Chicago. Thirty-nine of the 72 were published in Chicago and 33 in other parts of the state. By 1896, we find other languages represented, Welsh, Spanish, Italian, Hebrew, Lithuanian and Hollandish being added. Chicago published a larger proportion than in 1881, and 86 of the 131, the entire number published in the state, were German. The Poles and Hebrews had each acquired a daily, while the Bohemians had two more.

By 1905 the Welsh, French, and Spanish publications had suspended, and the Bohemian papers were showing quite a gain. A Slovenian weekly appears, too.

The figures for 1914, however, show the altered character of the newer immigration, as reflected in the language in

which the periodicals are published.

The relative importance of the German press is declining, the Poles and Bohemians each have four dailies, while new names appear, such as Slovak, Hungarian, Croatian-Servian and Bulgarian. Chicago has assumed a more important rank than ever, 128 of the 156 publications being printed there. The Germans and Scandinavians are about the only ones who have any strength left in the rest of the state.

There are 25 daily papers published in Chicago in some language other than English, leaving but 11 printed in English. The circulation of these 11, however, is much greater than that of the 25. Outside of Chicago there are but 2 dailies in the state, both German, printed in a language other than English, whereas in 1904 there were 7, all German. The German immigration has declined, and those already here are either dying or learning to read English. It is the more recent arrivals that demand papers printed in the language of the old country. Aside from these publications for those of special nationality, we may mention those devoted to the colored population of our state. In 1895 there were 5 weeklies, in 1904 there were 4, and in 1914 there were 10, all weeklies.

An evidence of the change in the languages represented in these publications is found in the names of the papers themselves. Twenty-five years ago the Volksblatt, Zeitung and Wochenblatt were common enough, but they have been gradually superseded by such unpronoumceable names as Hrvatska Zastava, a Croation daily, Hospodarske Listy, a Bohemian semi-monthly.

Slovensks-Ameriky Dennick, a Slovak daily, and Spravedlnost, a Bohemian daily.

From the census figures in the following table we can verify the conclusions just reached. The German papers were fewer in number in 1910 than in 1880, the only language of which this is true. The Bohemians and Poles show a marked gain in the thirty years, while the Scandinavians after gaining 12 between 1880 and 1890, have remained stationary. Of the nationalities represented for the first time in 1890, the Hebrew and Italian have increased most.

In 1905 Greek and Lithuanian publications are first listed. In 1910 Slovenian, Slovak, Bulgarian, Croatian-Servian publications appear, together with one Esperanto journal.

Census.

Language	1880[68]	1890[68]	1905[69]	1910[69]
Bohemian	4	7	17	18
French	1	2	2	2
German	70	81	56	63
Polish	2	9	13	14
Scandinavian	20	32	33	32
Dutch		1	1	2
Gaelic & English		1		
German & "		8	5	11
Hebrew		1	5	8
Italian		2	4	6
" & "		1		
Spanish		1		1
Greek			2	3
Lithuanian			2	2
Slovenian				2
Slovak				2
Bulgarian				1
Croatian				1
Servian				1
Esperanto				1
Yiddish & English				1
Eng., Germ., & Italian				1
" " & French				1
Italian & English			1	
	97	146	149	173

68 - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - - -
69 Part III of Mfg. Industries. 11th Census. pp 672-673
13th Census. Vol. 9 pp 275-276

From the following table[70] we learn that the weekly is the most popular type of publication, over one-half the total number being issued weekly. The daily is next, with the monthly following. Regarding circulation, the rank is the same.

Period of Issue	Census	In foreign Languages Number.	Agg. Circ. per issue.
Total	1909	173	1,457,367
	1904	149	1,184,355
Daily &	1909	31	475,924
Sunday	1904	31	393,890
Semi- &	1909	14	76,200
Tri-weekly	1904	10	54,080
Weekly	1909	95	559,617
	1904	81	543,314
Monthly	1909	22	252,209
	1904	16	103,925
Quarterly	1909	6	82,292
	1904	3	47,200
All other	1909	5	11,125
Classes	1904	8	41,946

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[70]Thirteenth Census, Vol. 9 p. 275.

Class Journals

"Perhaps the most remarkable feature of American journalism within the past ten years has been the growth and development of class journals. A decade ago there were few outside the religious and agricultural press. These two classes of papers were probably the earliest in the field."[71]

The class journal is a product of the movement toward specialization which has accompanied the growth of population. The number of publications has increased with the population, while the character of the publications has been determined by the differentiation of the various groups in society. These groups may be formed on any of several lines. Formerly, geographical and political lines served to limit the circulation of a periodical. Now the lines are differently drawn, social, religious, fraternal and business interests serving to draw people within the limits of the subscription list. But the economic interests have so far proven the most influential in separating the people into readers of various class journals. Thus we find publications devoted to agriculture, commerce, law, labor, mechanics, railroads, science, medicine, stock, finance, and to a great number of the more important trades and lines of business.

The extreme minuteness with which these publications are specialized may be indicated by naming a few of them. Canner and Dried Fruit Packer, Chef and Steward, Circulation Managers Journal, Electrical Mining, Engraver and Electrotyper, Hide and Leather, Ice and Refrigeration, Ignition and Accessories, Milk News,

[71] Printer's Ink Vol. 3. p 18.

Monumental News, National Cleaner and Dyer, National Laundry Journal, Paint and Varnish Record, Piano Trade, Practical Decorator, Retail Coalman, Vegetable Grower, Violinist, Wholesale Grocer, etc.

They have even invaded the daily field, the following class journals being published daily in Chicago. Brewer's Daily Bulletin, Law Bulletin, National Hotel Reporter, Farmers' and Drovers Journal, Live Stock World, Maroon (Chi. U.), Racing Form.

Some indication of the growth in the number of these specialized publications is given by the statement that in 1880 there were but 192 in the state while in 1914 there were 535.[72] These were published chiefly in Chicago. This is for several reasons. First, they naturally cluster in the large business centers, where the news of the trade may be more easily secured. Then the printing establishments capable of handling magazines of any size are found only in the larger places, and the cost of having them printed in the bigger plants is lower than in the small ones. Lastly, Chicago is the place where the largest number of s subscribers to most of the periodicals would be found.

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[72] Ayer's Newspaper Annuals

Following are two tables, one compiled from the census reports, and the other from Ayer's Newspaper Annuals of the dates indicated. The two tables differ in several respects, partly due to a variation in classification and in part to the fact that Ayer's enumerates only those publications in which the advertiser might be interested as a medium for his advertising. The two tables, however, show some of the same tendencies in this field of periodical publishing.

Ayer's Annual.

	1881	1890	1900	1910	1914
Agricultural	9	11	23	20	22
Collegiate	10	8	14	18	27
Educational	6	5	13	18	21
Financial		5	7	12	11
Historical	1				0
Juvenile	4	3	8	5	7
Labor	1	9	21	28	29
Legal	2	4	5	7	7
Literary, family and society	13	44	40	42	43
Mechanical	8	10	8	7	6
Music, art and drama	3	4	9	6	6
Railroads	5	7	7	8	17
Religious	59	63	70	78	78
Scientific and Medical	8	22	32	36	30
Sports	4	9	6	13	21
Stock	7	21	22	27	22
Trade, commerce and business	46	83	114	140	158
Fraternal	6	20	18	32	30
Total	192	328	417	497	535

CHARACTER OF PUBLICATIONS.

Total Class Journals	Year	Total Number	News, Politics & Family reading	Religion	Ag., Hort., Dairying & Stock raising	Commerce, Finance, Insurance & Railroads	Trade	General Literature, including magazines	Sunday newspapers	Medicine & Surgery	Law	Science & Mechanics	Fraternal Organizations	Education & History	Society, Art Music & Fashion	College & School	Miscellaneous
301	1880[1]	1017	736	49	15	66	--	9	-	8	5	5	13	19	7	-	85
379	1890[1]	1241	862	102	30	27	72	18	5	12	5	17	18	7	19	3	44
407	1900[1]	1548	1141	85	35	17	101	28	4	12	8	9	18	17	24	10	39
556	1905[2]	1715	1159	123	36	37	108	28	-	17	8	10	42	35	--	--	112
513	1910[3]	1682	1169	123	36	23	102	36	-	20	10	26	49	33	10	28	17

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[1] 12th Census, Vol. IX. pp 1068-1069.

[2] Bulletin No. 52, Census 1905. p 12.

[3] Thirteenth Census, Vol. X. p 787.

The changing nature of our economic system is reflected clearly in the development of class journals.

First is the numerical increase, indicating an increasing specialization of interests. The agricultural press including publications devoted to stock, had its greatest development between 1890 and 1900. These were the days when the farmer of the Middle West was taking an unusually active part in the national political affairs, and was inclined to feel that he was more of a factor than theretofore. He had suffered severely from the panic, also, and whoever had a word of cheer to offer him found a ready welcome. Since 1900 the tendency has been to concentrate into larger publications, although they doubtless enjoy a much larger aggregate circulation than in 1900.

That the farm paper is not on the decline is indicated by a remark made by E. W. Rankin of the Farmer's Mail and Breeze in 1910[73], when he said that the demand for educated young men in agricultural journalism was greater than the supply, so that some members of the staff get salaries as high as $15,000 per annum.

The number of college papers is increasing and shows no tendency to concentration, and manifestly will not until there are fewer Colleges and Universities, as few have more than one paper each.

Publications devoted to educational and fraternal interests are still on the increase. Those devoted to juvenile interests are hardly holding their own in numbers, owing in part to

73 Printer's Ink. Vol. 70; No. 6. p 27 Feb. 1910

the competition afforded by the Sunday papers and the illustrated magazines.

The sense of class consciousness developed by the laborers is indicated by the remarkable increase in the number of publications devoted to their interests. These show the largest proportional gain of any class.

The religious press of the state, while still strong and numerous, is not gaining in numbers. As the economic interests have grown in importance as determining the classes in modern society, the religious and political have declined. So now a religious journal is compelled to rely on its own merits for circulation, rather than on sectarian bias. The daily paper has recently tended to devote some space to sermons and matters religious, and has thus cut into the circulation of the religious press.

A different comception of what constitutes the religious element in life is in part responsible for the decline in relative importance of the religious press.

Publications devoted to sport show a great growth, especially within the last fourteen years shown on the table. The growth of a leisure class in the place of the pioneer is indicated.

But the greatest development is shown in the publications dealing with trade, commerce, and finance. In 1881 they were second in importance to the religious press; now they are twice as numerous.

In 1910 we find the first financial daily published west of New York being launched in Chicago.[74] These trade journals cover about every industry in the state, retail and wholesale and manufacturing. The great growth in numbers and frequent failures in the field indicate that these trade journals are passing thru the period of expansion which characterized the development of the regular newspapers up to about 1900. It would not be surprising if they would soon decrease in numbers, leaving only the strongest in each line. Many of them have been started up to about 1900 by advertisers who sought to obtain exchange advertising with the newspaper press, but the better understanding among newspaper publishers has tended to discourage those attempts.

Illinois' importance in this field is shown by the following, which indicates her rank, according to the number of publications, in comparison with other states in 1910. Illinois ranks first in four classes, second in seven classes, third in two classes and fourth in one.

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[74] Printers' Ink May, 1910 p. 89.

Classification according to character of publication.[75]

	Rank
News, politics, family reading	1
Religious	4
Agricultural, horticultural, dairy, stock raising etc.	1
Commerce, finance, insurance, railroads, etc.	3
Trade journals	2
General literature	2
Medicine and surgery	2
Law	1
Science and machanics	2
Fraternal	1
Education and History	2
Society, art, fashion and music	3
College and school periodicals	2
Miscellaneous	2

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[75] Thirteenth Census 1910. Vol. 10 p. 787

Concentration.

We have seen that, judged by the test of circulation, there has developed a considerable degree of concentration in Illinois publications, the average circulation having increased greatly since 1880. Applying other tests we are able to reach the same conclusions.

By Value of Products. According to this test, the average establishment is considerably larger than in 1880, and has shown a gain in size with every census report. The average value of product per establishment has increased from $7,143 in 1880 to $28,465 in 1910, almost fourfold. The following table illustrates the development.

Total Value of Products.

Year	Total	No. establishments reporting	Av. value per estab.
1880	$7,264,585[76]	1017[76]	$ 7,143
1890	13,525,673[76]	1241[76]	10,899
1900	16,368,952[76]	1548[76]	10,574
1905	28,644,981[78]		
1910	39,794,109[77]	1398[77]	28,465

[76] 12th Census Vol. 9, p. 1056

[77] 13th Census Vol.10, p. 771

[78] Bulletin 53. p. 12

Pounds of Paper Used.

Another test is that of the number of pounds of paper used. While we have no figures since 1905, the trend was even then strongly towards the use of more paper at each time of enumeration, and the growth in circulation since 1905 makes it certain that the movement has continued.

1880 -	15,649,893[79]
1890 -	60,907,589[79]
1900 -	114,853,569[79]
1905 -	166,052,026[80]

Number of Wage Earners. Judged by the test of the average number of wage earners employed in each establishment, there is not evident much tendency toward concentration, the average number being a trifle smaller than in 1880. The introduction of various labor saving machines accounts in large part for this condition, as the same number of workers are now able to turn out a larger product than formerly.

However, the trend is plainly toward the larger shop, judged by investment and output. The census figures on capital are so unreliable that they cannot be used safely, but the opinion

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[79] 18th Census, Vol. 9, p. 1056, n. & p.

[80] Bulletin 52, p. 12, Newspapers only.

of those familiar with conditions is that the average newspaper office today represents several times the investment that was necessary in 1880 when much more of the work was done by hand.

Wage Earners

Year	No. estab. reporting	Number	Av. No. per establishment
1880	1017[81]	6583[81]	6.47
1890	1341[81]	6718[81]	5.41
1900	1259[81]	7478[81]	5.94
1905	1390[82]	7205[82]	5.18
1910	1396[83]	8289[83]	5.93

Papers Published in One Town for Another.

Sometimes, when a town is too small to support a paper, an enterprising publisher in some neighboring place will publish a paper for them, under a separate name, thereby flattering the sense of individuality of the smaller place and increasing the editor's revenue. For example, the publisher of the Journal in Peru might put out an edition under the name of the Jonesville Journal. It would be practically the same as his own paper, except for the name of the paper and perhaps its makeup, which would be altered to feature the news from the other town. Indeed, an enterprising publisher might publish several such papers.

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[81] 13th Census, Vol. 9, p. 1056

[82] Bulletin 52, p. 7

[83] 13th Census, Vol.10, p. 771

This custom is more prevalent in the densely populated sections of the state, where the towns are close together. Such enterprises have chiefly flourished in the north-east part of the state.

During the decade 1880-1890 there was a very noticeable increase in the number of such projects, but by 1900 they had fallen off due partly to the failure of a big Chicago firm publishing 52 small weeklies for towns near the metropolis.*

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*The Suburban Newspaper Company published the following newspapers in the suburbs of Chicago and towns adjacent thereto in 1890: Democrat, Almira; News, Antioch; Monitor, Auburn Park; Social Record, Aurora; Times, Austin; Crucible, Blue Island; Democrat, Bowmanville; News, Brighton Park; Social World, Chicago; South Chicago Star, Chicago; News-Record, Chicago Lawn; Journal, Colehour; Progress, Chrisman; Democrat, Cragin; Sun, Cummings; Press, Downer's Grove; Gazette, Elmhurst; Herald, Elsdon; News, Fernwood; Gleaner, Glencoe; News, Grand Crossing; Enterprise, Gray's Lake; Blade, Hainesville; News, Harlem; Herald, Hinsdale; Times, Hyde Park; Democrat, Irving Park; Democrat, Jefferson Park; Sun, Kensington; Era, Lake Forest; Advocate, Lake Villa; News, Lake Zurich; News, Maywood; Reporter, Millington; Herald, Moreland; Home News, Naperville; Journal, New Bremen; Herald, Normal Park; Times, Normal Park; Enterprise, Oakdale; News, Oak Park; Journal, Pullman; News, Roseland; Weekly, Shermerville; Mirror, South Englewood; News, South Evanston; News, South Lynn; Post, Washington Heights; Journal, Waukonda; News, West McHenry; News, Wheeling; Times, Winnetka. They also published three for towns in Wisconsin.

The increase of this movement from 1880-1890 might be taken as an indication of a tendency toward concentration, but it should not be so regarded. It really is a manifestation of the decentralizing spirit, which prompted each hamlet to boast a newspaper with a distinct name. With the passing of this spirit the real centralization has come. Now the central paper circulates under its own name in the other communities, the local correspondents sending in the news as before, which is printed under a small caption.

Since 1900 the tendency toward real centralization has increased, until there are but 18 papers printing any others, these others numbering but 29.

The movement is shown by the table:[84]

Date	No. of papers publishing paper for other town	No. of papers published in some other place
1880	22	36
1890	39	126
1900	31	58
1910	22	43
1915	18	29

[84]Ayer's Annuals.

Small Town Monopoly.

Altho it is a common saying among newspaper men that as soon as a town is big enough to support one paper decently, another starts up, there is a growing movement among Illinois papers toward a monopoly of the smaller towns by one paper.

The figures indicate the trend:[85]

Year	No. of towns having only one paper each	No. of places in which papers were published.	Percentage of towns having only one paper to total towns where papers were published.
1880	165	332	49.7
1895	345	605	58.3
1904	370	650	56.9
1914	420	642	65.4

From this table it can be seen that during the 34 years there has been a strong movement toward giving one paper the monopoly of the local business in the smaller places. During the past ten years this tendency has been very noticeable, for, although the total number of places where newspapers are published has declined, showing that papers have died in at least eight towns, still the number of papers having a monopoly on their local fields has increased 7.5%, indicating considerable combination or simply the succumbing of the weaker to the stronger competitor.

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[85] Figures compiled from Ayer's Newspaper Annuals, 1881, 1896, 1905, 1915.

Comments on the tendency towards concentration are common in the trade journals. As far back as 1902 The Fourth Estate stated editorially[86] that it was its opinion that consolidations among newspapers would continue. It was pointed out that newspapers were operated co-operatively in the matter of news gathering, features and advertising soliciting, so that it was not unnatural that such papers should be operated by the same corporation or publisher, as in the case of the Hearst, Scripps-McRae, Munsey, Ochs, etc. groups. The Fourth Estate considered it likely that the next step would be local consolidation, which did shortly appear. The newspapers buy their ink from a trust, their paper from a trust, distribute through a delivery trust, collect news through large monopolistic corporations, and buy their labor supply from a trust, so it is not unexpected that the papers themselves should incline to get together.

Furthermore, the concentration in other business, such as the big department stores, has led to concentration among the newspapers. For instance, it was stated in 1910[87] that the Marshall Field Company keeps its advertising appropriation within 1½% of its gross receipts. "Of course the smaller stores everywhere spend far more proportionally." This shows that the more business is concentrated in a few large firms, the less advertising there will be for the papers. Besides, these big advertisers have sometimes combined to force the papers to lower their rates.

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86 Nov. 1, 1902. p. 10
87 The Fourth Estate, Mar. 26, 1910, p. 12.

The opinion seems to be that the increased cost of getting out a paper is responsible for the movement toward concentration. That more papers do not succumb and die outright instead of being absorbed by a rival, the common form of consolidation, is on account of the value of the good will and subscription list. This costs much to build up, and is worth something to a rival publication, so that few papers of any consequence at all really suspend. Instead we find mention of such events as the following: "The Carmi Courier and the White County Democrat, two papers of White County, Illinois, have consolidated." "The Arenzville Independent, which was recently purchased by J. W. Bridgeman, has been consolidated with the Arenzville Democrat, and is now published under the name of the Times."[88]

"The Peoria, Ill., Morning Herald has purchased the Transcript of that city and has incorporated it with the Herald."[89]

Chicago furnishes other examples. The present Herald is an instance. The Chicago Herald was established in 1881. In 1895 the Times was merged with it as the Times-Herald. In 1901 the Record was consolidated with it as the Record-Herald and in 1914 the old Inter-Ocean was merged with the Record-Herald and is now called the Herald again.

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[88] The Fourth Estate. Jan. 5, 1899, p. 3.

[89] The Fourth Estate, Jan. 19, 1899. p. 1.

The increasing consolidation has had its accompaniment in a tendency toward integration on the part of the larger papers. Some of the larger ones own their own paper mills and forests, while practically all city dailies cast most of their own type.

Nor is the movement without its advantages to the public as well as to the papers themselves. Newspapers that are handicapped by a lack of resources cannot effectively serve the public and are peculiarly exposed to the temptation to betray the people's interests for the sake of "backing".

Moreover, the effect is wholesome in other ways, to advertiser, subscriber and publisher. Advertisers get more publicity for the same cost, the duplication of subscribers being done away with. The subscriber undeniably gets a bigger and better paper for the same outlay, while the publisher gets a better living.

CHAPTER IV.

Political Aspect.

"The daily and weekly press is by far the most important purveyor of political information, " says Macy in his Party Organization and Machinery.[1] The importance of the smaller newspaper politically is affirmed also by Ray in An Introduction to Political Parties and Practical Politics.[2] "Extensive use has been made in recent years of newspapers, especially newspapers circulating in small towns and rural districts."

As to the relative influence of the small newspaper and the larger newspapers and magazines it is difficult to judge, the use made of each class by the campaign managers being the best criterion. It would seem that each class had its use - the larger papers and magazines to mold opinion along broad, national lines and the smaller papers to create sentiment for local candidates.

The average reader knows the editor of his home weekly, and does not esteem his opinion very highly on national issues. But the editorial writer whose utterances are backed by the prestige of a powerful periodical, besides being in most cases a better editorial writer, is not known personally to the reader, and his opinions carry the weight of the vague but evidently well informed "we".

On the other hand, in local affairs, the local paper is more respected, for the reader feels that the editor is on familiar ground and knows whereof he writes, due allowance being made by the reader for personal or party prejudices.

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[1] Page 14. [2] Page 201.

While there is probably truth in the foregoing, the campaign managers make free use of the country weeklies and small dailies, sending out to them vast quantities of campaign matter, some in the shape of telegraph dispatches, editorials, correspondence, etc. Space may be purchased for campaign matter to be run as advertising. Many country papers are supplied free of charge with "patent insides" of "plate" matter relating to campaign issues or the candidates.

In a study of the political movement among the Illinois newspapers the one outstanding fact is their growing independence. Studying only the weeklies, semi- and tri-weeklies, and dailies for the years indicated, we can tabulate the total result as follows:[3]

Year	Rep.	Dem.	Ind.	Others	Total	Percentage of Ind. to Total
1881	293	144	181	25	643	28.1
1884	308	149	275	27	759	36.2
1886	314	173	316	20	823	38.4
1890	330	209	365	20	924	39.5
1895	357	239	477	30	1103	43.2
1900	448	272	521	11	1253	41.6
1905	485	222	466	21	1194	39.0
1910	465	194	453	13	1125	40.2
1913	424	185	452	21	1082	41.7
1915	362	181	483	48	1074	44.9

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3 Ayer's Newspaper Annual for year quoted.

Still another indication of the trend towards independence is found in the increasing number of papers which designate their policy as Independent Republican or Independent Democrat. These were counted in the foregoing table as Republican or Democrat, as the case might be, but the statement of their increase throws additional light on the movement.

In 1880 there were only 22 such, in 1895 there were 46, and in 1914 there were 60. The figures by counties follow:

Counties	1881	1896	1915
Adams	2	2	3
Brown		1	
Champaign		2	3
Coles	1		
Cook	2	5	16
DeWitt		1	
Effingham		1	
Ford		2	2
Fulton		1	2
Greene	1	1	1
Grundy			2

Counties	1881	1896	1915
Henry		2	
Iroquois	2	2	4
Kane	2	1	3
Kankakee		3	4
Lake		2	3
Lasalle	2	2	1
Livingston		1	1
Macoupin	2	1	
Mercer		1	
Monore	1		
Montgomery			1
Morgan			1
Ogle		1	1
Peoria	2		4
Rock Island		1	2
St. Clair	2	1	
Saline	1		
Sangamon		2	
Schuyler		2	
Stephenson			1
Tazewell	1	1	1
Union		1	
Vermillion	1	5	2
Whiteside		1	1
Will			1
TOTAL	22	46	60

It will be seen that the percentage of independent papers has on the whole maintained a steady increase, at the expense of those avowedly affiliated with either of the two great parties.

The reasons for this movement are several. In the first place the increasing economic independence of the publisher has enabled him to escape from his dependence upon political patronage and stand on his own feet, as it were. As far back as 1895, the Chicago Inter-Ocean stated "In Illinois the editor of a newspaper published in a county seat or in a prosperous village is a personage of distinction. It is long since he ceased to be dependent upon the 'county printing', or a hanch man of the county politicians."[4]

Editorially, the Fourth Estate in the issue of July, 8, 1905, likens the growing independence of the country press to that of the author, who formerly depended upon some wealthy patron, but who now looks to the general public for support. "Even the papers that bear the party label refuse to be gagged, shackled or leashed by the party leaders."

Making due allowance for the self-congratulatory element in the foregoing, it is evident that there is a movement toward independence on the part of the newspapers, especially the smaller ones.

Regarding the conditions in the early years of our state Prof. Scott says, "Had there been no public printing no politicians who felt the need of 'organs', probably no early paper could have lived a year, for the subscribers were few and the advertisements yielded little income."[5]

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[4] Quoted in the Fourth Estate in the issue of March 7, 1895. p 4.

[5] Newspapers and Periodicals of Illinois 1814-1879. Intro. p 37.

But with the growth of population and the development of advertising patronage, the newspapers became larger and more profitable to the publishers. At the beginning of our period of study much progress had already been made in attaining economic and political independence, so that the tendency is not so pronounced as it would be over a longer term of years.

Another reason closely connected with the above, is the fact that the control of newspapers has become more expensive than formerly, so that the petty politician cannot afford this luxury. In the early days of Illinois newspapers a large share of their contents was political in character, the news and advertisements forming a small part. The income from subscriptions and advertisements was meager, and the public printing and financial aid from the politician were the chief sources of revenue. And even the income from this source was large only relatively, as the expenses were small.

But the size of newspaper establishments has grown, the cost of mechanical equippment has increased, together with the cost of raw materials and labor. The average size of the newspaper plant judged by value of output, number of wage-earners or amount of wages has greatly increased. Together with this change has come the relative unimportance of political matter in the paper, more space being occupied by news and advertisements. The demand was for news and advertisements, so if the politician could obtain use of only a small part of the space even by supporting the paper his interest in the proposition naturally declined.

The result has been that it is only the bigger politicians

who own papers today, and those own them outright, rather than by contributing to the support of the editor, as the editor in many cases does not require this support and is apt to prove intractable at times.

Still another, and a very important reason, is found in the monopoly of the field by a publisher. In other words, when a publisher finds himself in sole possession of the local field, he naturally rebels against being tied down to one party. He often very sensibly assumes a neutral or independent stand, announces that his editorial columns are his own, but that his advertising columns are available to any party paying the regular rates for space. The political news he reports in a less biased manner than is the practice with the party organ of the old type, and in this way is enabled to hold the field for himself without inciting the politicians of one party or the other to start a rival paper in the community. He makes money from the advertising of all parties and retains a monopoly of the newspaper business.

That there is a decided movement towards political independence among papers having a monopoly of their field is shown by the following table:[6]

Year	Repub.	Dem.	Indep.	Others	Total	% of Ind. to Total
1880	71	7	84	3 Gbk.	165	51.2
1895	64	11	267	3 Pop.	345	77.4
1904	94	24	252		370	68.1
1914	104	30	278	8 Prog.	420	68.5

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6 From Ayer's Newspaper Annual for years quoted.

The percentage of independent[7] papers of this kind is much greater than of the newspapers of the state as a whole, indicating that this influence has been a strong one in the movement.

In the table on Page two in this chapter several minor movements are shown. Noticeable is the falling away in the proportion of independent papers following 1895. The increase in the numbers of party papers between 1895 and 1900 was due in some measure to the sharp party lines being drawn at that time. There was intense feeling on the silver issue, and the war with Spain gave the Republican party a powerful impetus, so that there is recorded a large gain in the number of papers espousing that party's principles.

On the other hand, the number of independent papers actually decreased after 1900. This was probably due to the fact that the movement for concentration had set in and the weaker papers in places having two or more were being crowded out. The independent papers, being unsubsidized, were the first to succumb.

During the period from 1900 to 1905 the number of Democratic papers also declined as the triumph of the Republican party in the two preceding elections had been discouragingly emphatic. The Republican papers alone seemed to weather the storm, and actually gained in numbers.

In the last decade, however, the tide was turning against

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[7] The word "independent" is used to include those papers calling themselves either neutral or local.

the G. O. P. and the number of its organs fell off, while the Democrats almost held their own and the independent papers increased in number. In 1915 the percentage of independent paper was the highest of any year studied since 1881.

Of recent years the issues between the two great parties have not been so clearly drawn as they once were, which has had an influence upon the matter. In the Typographical Journal for Feb. 1915 we find the following[8] "The Press-Democrat is no more. C. C. Tilton, editor and publisher, has decided that party organs are a thing of the past, and has changed the name to the Danville Morning Press."

A comparison of the political tendencies of the dailies and weeklies is interesting, bringing out some data to substantiate previous statements.

The most noticeable fact shown by the accompanying table is the greater percentage of weekly papers that are independent, the dailies apparently remaining more in the class of party organs.

On reason, as has been pointed out, is that there are comparatively few dailies, many of which are owned by the prominent politicians. The little weeklies are too small for the big men to trouble themselves with, while they are at the same time too big a proposition for the little politicians to handle. Then, too, general policies are molded more by the large papers than by the little sheets.

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[8] Page 245.

Another reason is found in the fact that few daily papers have a monopoly of their field. By the time a town is large enough to support a daily, it already is certain to have at least two weeklies. Probably one of them is changed to a daily, leaving the other to continue in competition, either as a weekly or perhaps soon as a daily, As a matter of fact, we find few towns with only one daily while there are many with only one paper, and that a weekly.

The dailies and weeklies show the same movements in response to the changes in the political aspect of the state, as for example in the great increase in Republican papers during the decade from 1895 to 1905, and in the growth of Progressive organs in 1915.

	Weeklies					Dailies.				
Year	Rep.	Dem.	Ind.	Others	%Ind.	Rep.	Dem.	Ind.	Other	% Ind.
1881	258	129	163	24	28.4	35	15	18	1	26.1
1884	270	132	248	26	36.7	38	17	27	1	32.5
1886	275	151	287	16	39.3	39	22	29	4	30.8
1890	283	182	334	17	40.8	47	27	31	3	28.7
1895	300	202	439	26	45.4	57	37	38	4	27.9
1900	366	220	480	10	44.6	82	52	41	1	23.9
1905	387	178	433	19	42.5	98	44	33	2	18.6
1910	373	152	420	10	43.9	92	42	33	3	19.9
1913	342	144	413	14	45.2	82	41	39	7	23.0
1915	294	144	439	31	48.3	68	37	44	17	26.5

In 1902, William Jennings Bryan said, "The daily is becoming less and less a political paper, As a great business enterprise the city daily has passed beyond the stage where the owner can be the editor. And as the paper thus ceases to be the organ of one man it loses its political influence. But as people will always

require papers that discuss political questions, we shall have the growth of the weekly papers."[9]

If the accompanying table contains anything of truth, it seems likely that Mr. Bryan was wrong again, for it is the weekly that is growing independent and the daily which continues to advocate purely party policies. Since 1881 the percentage of independent weeklies, in propertion to all the weeklies, has increased from 28.4 to 48.3, while the dailies, staring in 1881 at 26.1% sunk in 1905 to 18.6% and by 1915 had but little more than regained the position they occupied in 1881, 26.5%.

Although the number of papers is too small to make the figures of much value for generalization, the data regarding the Chicago dailies shows a more decided movement towards independence than we found among the daily papers of the state as a whole. We can plainly see, from the accompanying table, the growth in strength of the Republicans, showing itself in 1905, but by 1910 the independents were strong, and in 1913, while the tide of insurgency was sweeping the country the Republicans lost organs while the number of independent papers increased markedly. Some of the increase in number of "Other" papers is found in the ranks of the Socialistic publications.

Back in 1898 a writer comments upon the Chicago dailies in this language[10] "Perhaps the most distinguishing feature of Chicago newspapers is a general spirit of independence, a freedom from domination - party or otherwise - and a disposition to print all

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[9] Quoted in Printers Ink No. 10, p. 27, 1902.

[10] F.Leroy Armstrong. The Daily Papers of Chicago. Chautauqua 27:538

the news." It would appear that at the time Mr. Armstrong made these observations the Chicago dailies were about as independent as they ever have been.

Cook County

Year	Rep	Dem	Ind	Other	% Ind of Total
1881	7	1	4		33 1/3
1884	5	2	5		41.6
1886	7		8	3	44.4
1890	8	2	9	1	4.5
1895	8	1	13	1	56.5
1900	6	3	14	1	58.3
1905	10	3	11	1	44
1910	10	1	12	3	38.4
1913	7	2	18	5	56.2
1915	7	2	15	12	41.7

Minor Party Organs

Under this caption we discuss only those papers which were so openly favorable to the party as to allow themselves to be so listed in Ayer's Newspaper Annual. There were other papers supporting the same policies which did so while maintaining their place as independent journals. Of these we have no record, so the figures following represent only the most ardent partisans.

In 1881 the Greeback party was strong in Illinois having twenty-three weeklies and one daily in the state. There was one Socialist weekly in Chicago. By 1886 but three Greenback papers remained, while three Prohibition organs had arisen, together with a Socialistic daily and a weekly.

In 1890 the Prohibition movement seems to have gained in force

fourteen weeklies advocating the party policies. One Socialist daily and two weeklies were published in Chicago.

By 1895 the Populists had appeared and we find one Populist daily and thirteen weeklies. The number of Socialist papers remained unchanged, and the Prohibition organs had dwindled to seven, all weeklies.

The Populist movement was short-lived but one Populist paper remaining in 1900. Five Prohibitionist organs were left with the three Socialists. But by 1905 the foreign population of Chicago began to make itself felt, the number of Socialist papers in the state growing from three to ten, all in Cook County. The Populists had three left and the Prohibitionists had five.

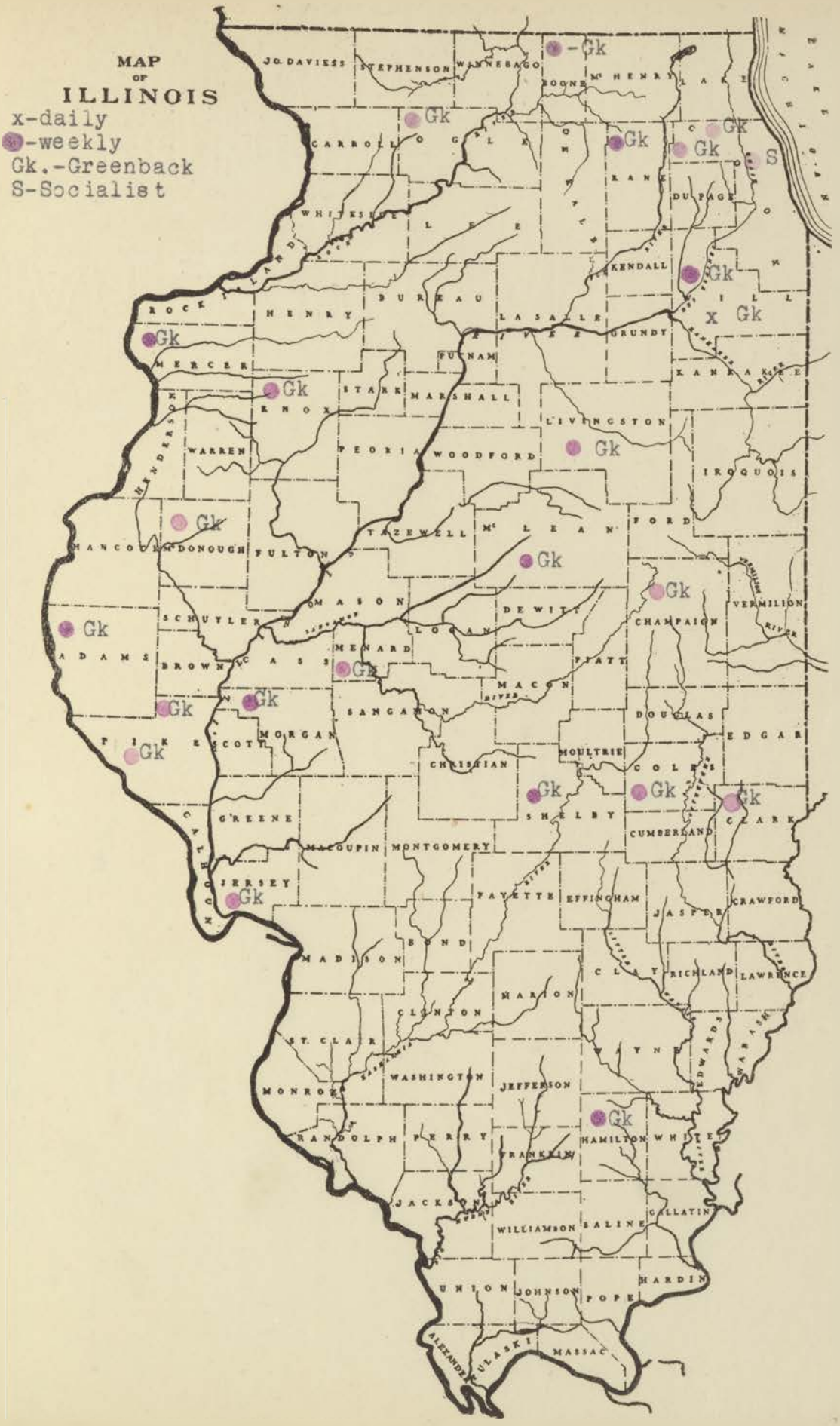
In 1910 only three Prohibitionist papers remained, while the Populists had entirely disappeared, but the Socialists had thirteen, three of them dailies. Only one was outside Cook County.

By 1913 the Prohibitionists had no paper, and the Progressives had appeared, with one daily and three weeklies. The Socialists had eleven weeklies and two dailies as in 1910.

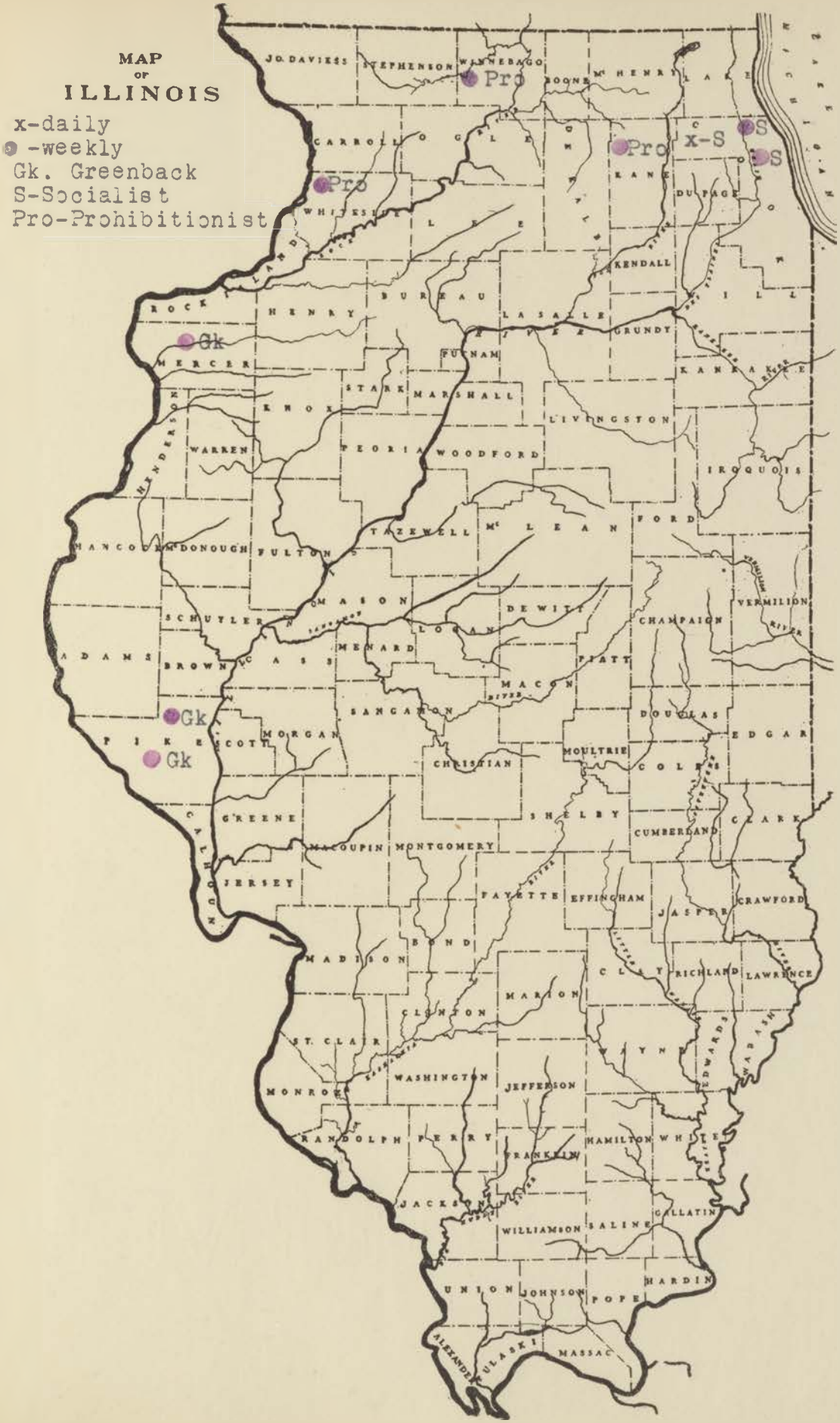
And in 1915 the Progressives had acquired twenty weeklies and four dailies, and the Socialists had the same number as in 1913.

The maps show the distribution of these papers:

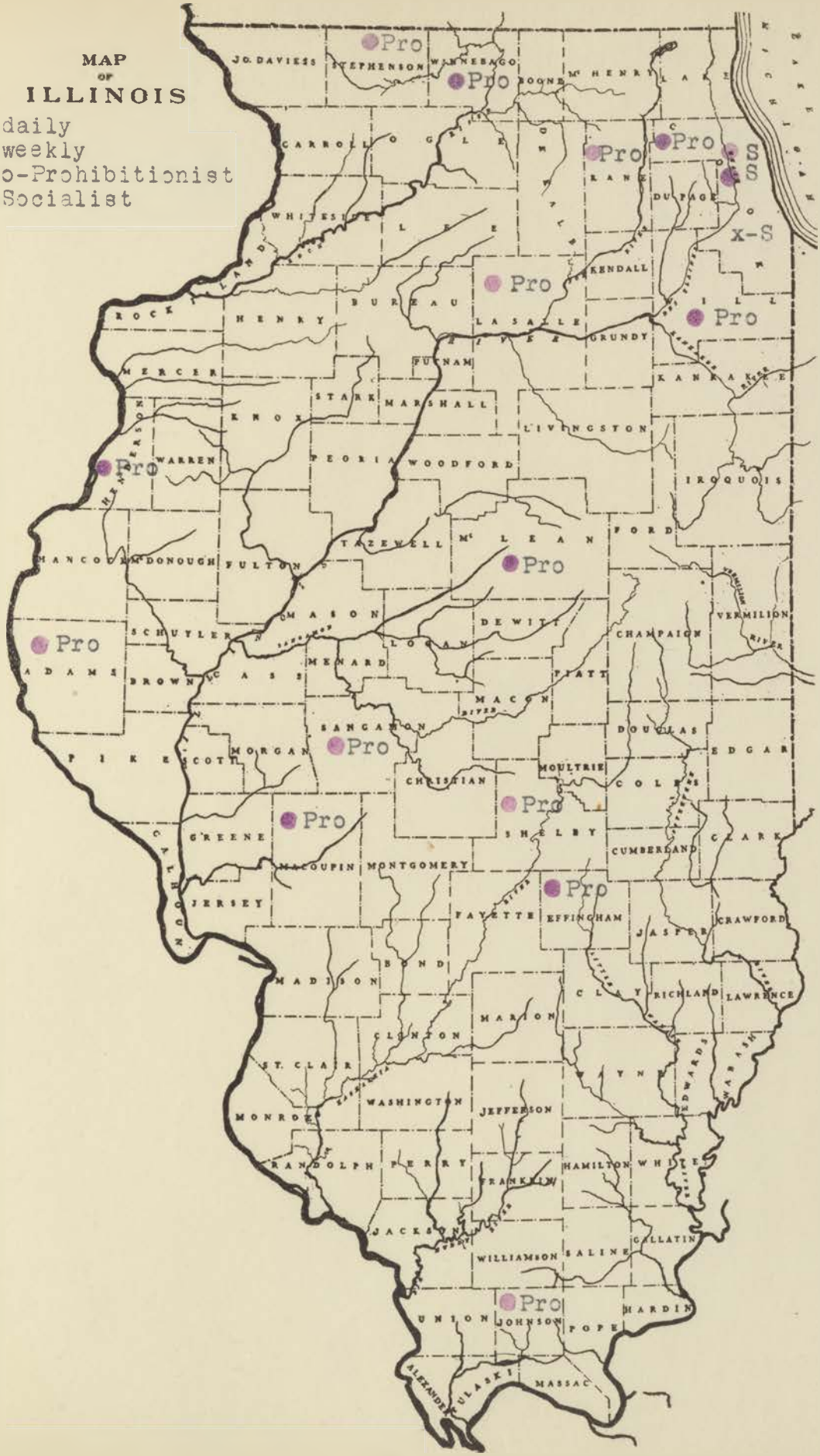
MINOR PARTY ORGANS IN 1881. MAP 10.



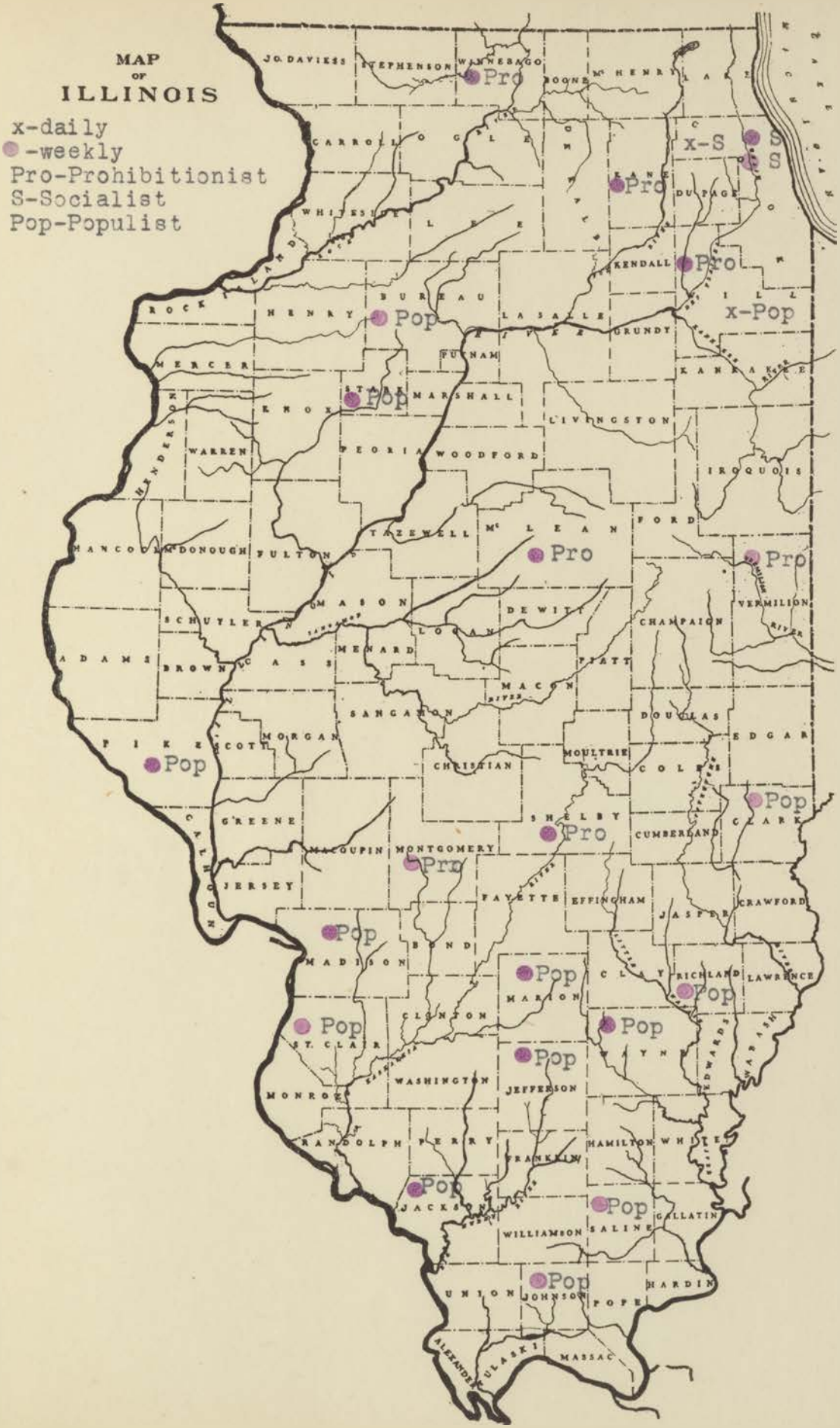
MINOR PARTY ORGANS IN 1886. MAP 11.



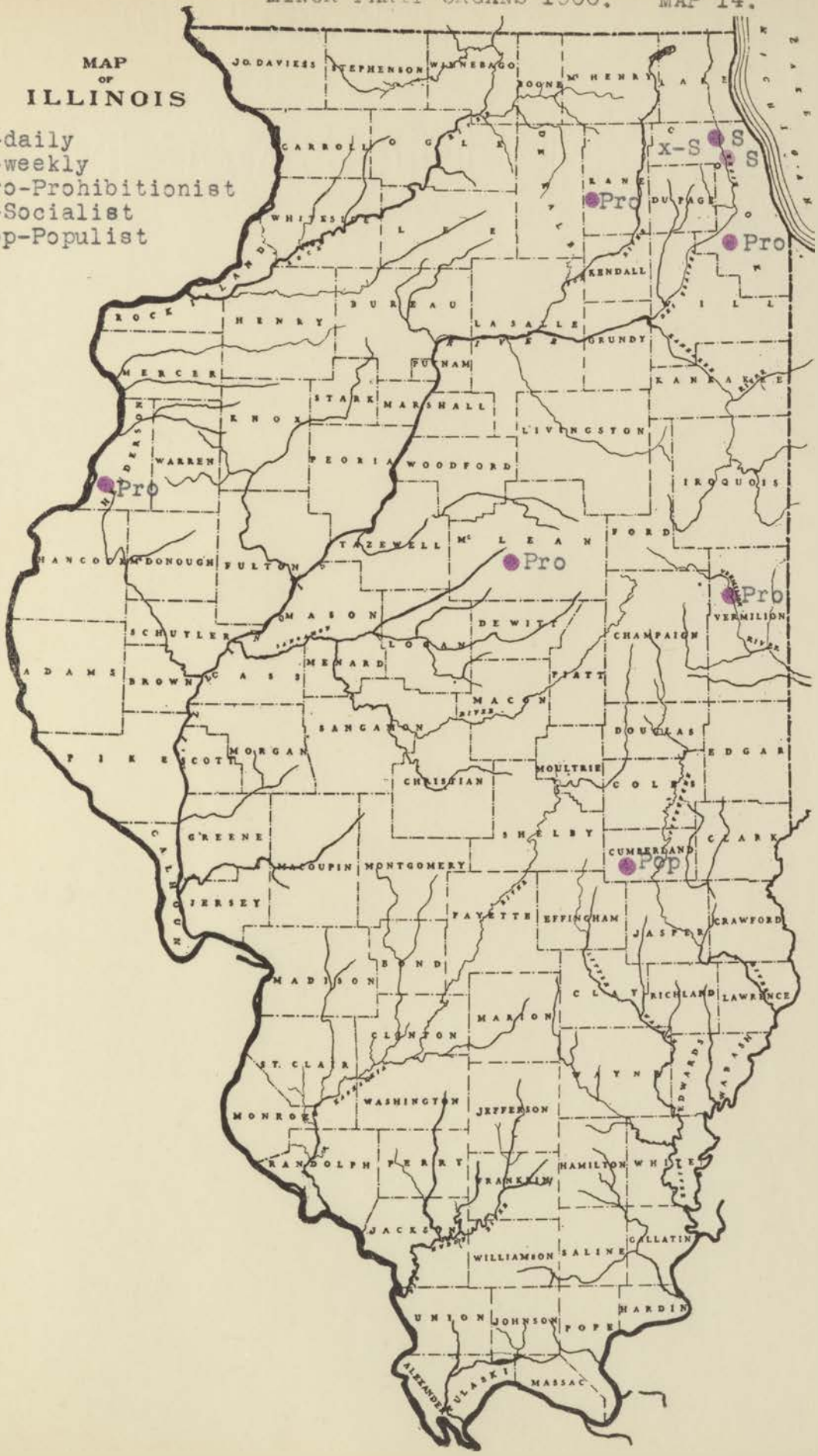
MINOR PARTY ORGANS 1890. Map 12.



MINOR PARTY ORGANS 1895. MAP 13.



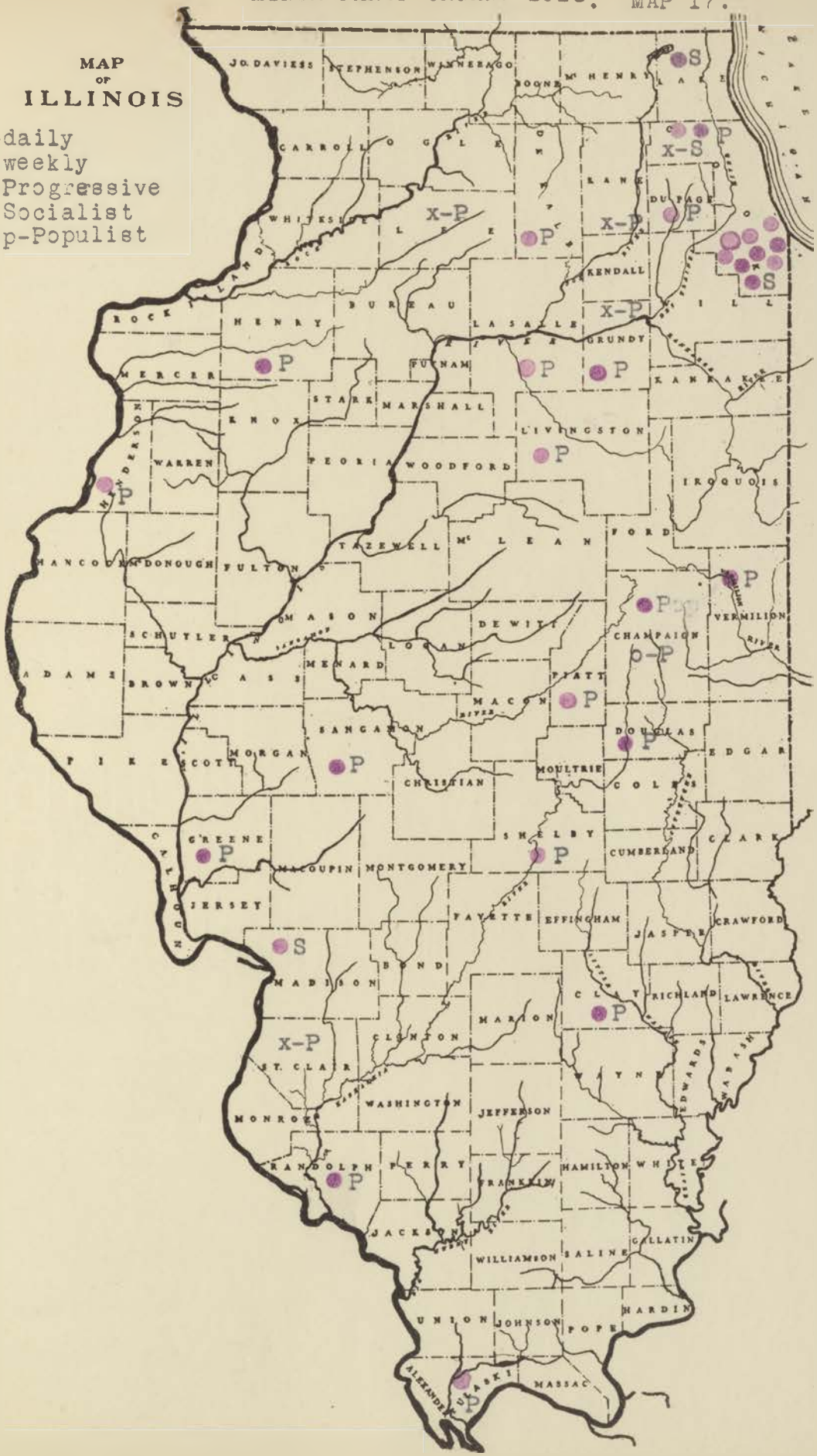
MINOR PARTY ORGANS 1900. MAP 14.



MINOR PARTY ORGANS 1905. Map 15.

MINOR PARTY ORGANS 1910. Map 16.

MINOR PARTY ORGANS 1915. MAP 17.



An effort to trace the relationship existing between the political complexion of Illinois newspapers and that of the communities in which they are printed is unsatisfactory for several reasons.

First: We do not know the circulation of many papers. This is of more importance than knowing the number of papers published.

Second: If we did know the total circulation of each publication, we should still be far from our goal unless we knew the circulation of each publication in each community. Not only would we need to know the circulation of each Illinois publication in each community in the state, but we should need to know the circulation and political policy of all outside publications in each community in the state. This information is impossible to obtain.

Third: Our data regarding the political leanings of Illinois publications are taken from Ayer's Newspaper Annual, the only source available, and do not show many things it would be desirable to know. For instance, when a paper is listed as "independent" it is likely that it supports one candidate or the other in a given election and probably in many cases pushes the whole ticket. So we should need to know which candidates each paper supported in each election studied, a thing impracticable of attainment.

Fourth: Many papers, nominally favoring one great party or the other, open their advertising columns at regular rates to all candidates, so that the general influence of the publication is much modified.

For these reasons, an accurate study of the political relation between paper and public is impossible. But a tabulation of votes in several elections by counties compared with a tabulation of the political tendencies of the papers within these counties, enables us to arrive at the general conclusion that in most localities the political complexion of papers and public tend to coincide very closely.[11]

This, however, tells us little that we did not already know, and to prove statistically which was cause and which effect is impossible. The reasonable supposition is that there is a high degree of interaction, the attitude of the people influencing the policy of the paper, and that in turn influencing the attitude of the people. As a problem this savors of the sociological and does not lend itself to easy solution by the inductive method.

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11 Having established to our satisfaction that a very close relation exists between the political attitude of the community and the papers published in it, it is outside the scope of our study to inquire why papers in certain localities are Republican and in other Democratic. This is a matter for the political scientist, for the problem resolves itself practically into the discovery of the reason for the vote in these localities being as it is, allowing for some influence exerted by the papers.

Summary

Year	Weeklies Rep	Dem	Ind	Other	Dailies. Rep	Dem	Ind	Other	Total
1881	258	129	163	24	35	15	18	1	643
1884	270	132	248	26	38	17	27	1	759
1886	275	151	287	16	39	22	29	4	823
1890	283	182	334	17	47	27	31	3	924
1895	300	202	439	26	57	37	38	4	1103
1900	366	220	480	10	82	52	41	1	1252
1905	387	178	433	19	98	44	33	2	1194
1910	373	152	420	10	92	42	33	3	1125
1913	342	144	413	14	82	41	39	7	1082
1915	294	144	439	31	68	37	44	17	1074

The following tables show the movement in detail by counties for the years indicated. The figures were compiled from Ayer's Newspaper Annual for the various years.

1881

	Weeklies				Dailies.				
County	Rep	Dem	Ind	Other	Rep	Dem	Ind	Other	Total
Adams	1	3	6	1	1	2	1		15
Alexander	1	1	1			1	1		5
Bond	1	0	1						2
Boone	3			1	1				5
Brown	1	2							3
Bureau	1	1		2					4
Calhoun		1							1
Carroll	5								5
Cass	2	2	2						6
Champaign	5	1	1	1					8
Christian	4	3	1						8
Clark	1	2	2	1					6
Clay	1	1	1						3
Clinton	1	3							4
Coles	4	2		1	1				8
Cook	17	3	18	2	7	1	4		52
Crawford	1	1							2
Cumberland	2	1							3
DeKalb	8	1	3				1		13
DeWitt	2	1	2						5
Douglas	3	1	1						5
DuPage	1		1						2
Edgar	2	2	1						5

1881	Weeklies				Dailies				
County	Rep	Dem	Ind	Other	Rep	Dem	Ind	Other	Total
Edwards	2								2
Effingham	1	2	1						4
Fayette	1	1	1						3
Ford	3		2						5
Franklin	1	1							2
Fulton	2	2	4						8
Gallatin	1								1
Greene	4	2	3						9
Grundy	1		2						3
Hamilton		2		1					3
Hancock	2	1	4						7
Hardin			1						1
Henderson	2	1	1						4
Henry	5	2	2						9
Iroquois	7	2							9
Jackson	2	1	1						4
Jasper	1	1							2
Jefferson	1	1							2
Jersey	1	1		1					3
Jo Daviess	3		3		1				7
Johnson	2								2
Kane	8	1	3	1	3		1		17
Kankakee	5	1							6
Kendall	2								2
Knox	5	1	4	1	1		1		13
LaSalle	11	2	6		2		1		22
Lake	2		1						3

1881

County	Rep	Dem	Ind	Other	Rep	Dem	Ind	Other	Total.
Lawrence	1	1	2						4
Lee	5	1	1						7
Livingston	3		2	1					6
Logan	1	1	3						5
McDonough	2	2	3	1					8
Mc Henry	5	1							6
Mc Lean	5	1	5	1	2	1			15
Macon	1	1	3		1	1	1		8
Macoupin	4	2	3						9
Madison	3	3	5		1	1			13
Marion	2	2	2						6
Marshall	5	1							6
Mason	2	2							4
Massac	1	1							2
Menard	1	1		1					3
Mercer	1	1	1	1					4
Monroe		3							3
Montgomery	2	3	1						6
Morgan	1	3	1	1	1				7
Moultrie	1	1	1						3
Ogle	4	1	2	1					8
Peoria	5	3	7		2	3	3		23
Perry	1	1	1						3
Piatt	1	1	1						3
Pike	1	1	4	2					8
Pope	1								1

1881	Weeklies				Dailies				
County	Rep	Dem	Ind	Other	Rep	Dem	Ind	Other	Total
Pulaski	1								1
Putnam			1						1
Randolph	2	2							4
Richland	2	1							3
Rock Island	3	1	3		2	1			10
St. Clair	5	3	5		1		1		13
Saline	2	1							3
Sangamon	2	1	3		2	1	1		10
Schuyler	1	1							2
Scott	1	2							3
Shelby	1	2	2	1					6
Stark	3	1	1						5
Stephenson	2	2	2			1			7
Tazewell	3	2	2			1			8
Union	1	1							2
Vermilion	4	1	1		2				8
Wabash	1	1							2
Warren	1	1	3				1		6
Washington	2	2	1						5
Wayne	1	1							2
White	2	2	1						5
Whitesides	3	1	5				1		10
Will	5	2	5	1	2	1		1	17
Williamson	1	1							2
Winnebago	5	1			2				8
Woodford	3	1	2						6
Total	258	129	163	24	35	15	18	1	643

1890	Weeklies				Dailies				
County	Rep	Dem	Ind	Others	Rep	Dem	Ind	Others	Total
Adams	1	3	11	1	1	2	1		20
Alexander	1	1	2			1	2		7
Bond	1	1							2
Boone	3								3
Brown	1	2	1						4
Bureau	2	2	7						11
Calhoun	1	1							2
Carroll	6	1	1						8
Cass	3	2	3						8
Champaign	5	2	4		1				12
Christian	3	2	3			1			9
Clark	2	3							5
Clay	1	1	1						3
Clinton	1	1	2						4
Coles	6	4	1		1				12
Cook	29	5	51	2	8	2	9	1	107
Crawford	1	1	2						4
Cumberland	3	1	1						5
DeKalb	7	1	5						13
DeWitt	3	1	2						6
Douglas	4	2	2						8
DuPage	1	1	2						4
Edgar	3	2	3		2				10
Edwards	2								2
Effingham	1	3	2						6
Fayette	1	2	3						6

1890 Counties	Weeklies				Dailies.				
	Rep	Dem	Ind	Others	Rep	Dem	Ind	Others	Total
Ford	3	1	2		1				7
Franklin	1	1							2
Fulton	4	3	6						13
Gallatin	1	2							3
Greene	3	3	1		1	1			9
Grundy	1		4				2		7
Hamilton	1	2							3
Hancock	2	2	7						11
Hardin			2						2
Henderson	1	1	2	1					5
Henry	5	1	6						12
Iroquois	6	2	2						10
Jackson	2	2							4
Jasper	1	1							2
Jefferson	1	1							2
Jersey	2	1					1		4
Jo Daviess	2	1	3		1				7
Johnson	1	1		1					3
Kane	6	2	8	1	3	1	2		23
Kankakee	3	1	3		1				8
Kendall	2		1						3
Knox	4	1	6		1				12
Lake	1		5						6
La Salle	8	9	12	1	3	2	4		39
Lawrence	2	1	1						4
Lee	4	1	2				1		8

1890 Counties	Weeklies				Dailies				
	Rep	Dem	Ind	Others	Rep	Dem	Ind	Others	Total
Livingston	4	2	9						15
Logan	2	1	3				2		8
Mc Donough	3	4	6						13
Mc Henry	7	2	2						11
Mc Lean	4	2	11	1	2	1			21
Macon	1	1	7	2	1	1	1	1	15
Macoupin	5	3	5	1					14
Madison	4	4	2		1	1			12
Marion	4	3	2		1				10
Marshall	3	3	1						7
Mason	2	1	2						5
Massac	2	1							3
Menard	1	1	3						5
Mercer	4	2	1						7
Monroe	1	1							2
Montgomery	2	3	5				1		11
Morgan	1	2	2		1	1			7
Moultrie	1	1	3						5
Ogle	6	1	4						11
Peoria	2	2	10	1	1	2	2		20
Perry	1	2							3
Piatt	2	2	4						8
Pike	1	1	5						7
Pope	1	1							2
Pulaski	1	1							2
Putnam			1						1

1890 Counties	Weeklies				Dailies.				
	Rep	Dem	Ind	Others	Rep	Dem	Ind	Others	Total
Randolph	3	3							6
Richland	2	1							3
Rock Island	3	1	4		3	1			12
St. Clair	5	5	2	1	1	3		1	18
Saline	1	1							2
Sangamon	3	3	8	1	2	2			19
Schuyler	1	1							2
Scott	1	1							2
Shelby	1	4	2	1	1				9
Stark	2	1	1						4
Stephenson	1	3	4	1	1	2			12
Tazewell	4	2	5			1	1		13
Union	1	2	1						4
Vermillion	3	1	10		3	1			18
Wabash	1	1	2						4
Warren	3	1	5		1				10
Washington	2	2	1						5
Wayne	1	1	2						4
White	2	3							5
Whiteside	5	3	3				1		12
Will	4	4	6	1	1		1		17
Williamson	1	1							2
Winnebago	7	2	5		3	1			18
Woodford	2	3	3						8
Total	283	182	334	17	47	27	31	3	924

1900 Counties	Rep	Dem	Ind	Others	Rep	Dem	Ind	Others	Total
Adams	1	4	11		1	2	1		20
Alexander	1	1			1	2	1		6
Bond	1	2	3						6
Boone	3				2				5
Brown	1	2	2						5
Bureau	4	2	9						15
Calhoun	1	1							2
Caroll	7	1	1		3	1			13
Cass	2	2	4		1		1		10
Champaign	6	4	12		2				24
Christian	4	3	4		2	2	1		16
Clark	4	2	2						8
Clinton	2	2	1						5
Coles	7	5	2		2	4			20
Cook	25	6	78	3	6	3	14	1	136
Crawford	4	2	2						8
Cumberland	3	2		1					6
DeKalb	8	2	5			1			16
De Witt	3	2	4		1	1			11
Douglas	5	3	3						11
Du Page	5	1	4						10
Edgar	2	2	4		2	1			11
Edwards	1								1
Effingham	1	2	4			1	1		9
Fayette	2	3	1						6
Ford	4	1	5		2				12

1900 Counties	Rep	Dem	Ind	Others	Rep	Dem	Ind	Others	Total
Franklin	1	2	1						4
Fulton	7	5	9		1	1	1		24
Gallatin	1	2	2						5
Green	3	5			1	1			10
Grundy	3	1	4		2		1		11
Hamilton	1	1	2						4
Hancock	5	3	8						16
Hardin	1	1							2
Henderson	3	2	1	1					7
Henry	7		6		1		1		15
Iroquois	9	3	5						17
Jackson	3	3	2		3	1			12
Jasper	1	2	1			1			5
Jefferson	1	2			1	1			5
Jersey	1	1				1			3
Jo Daviess	3	1	5		1	1			11
Johnson	1	1							2
Kane	8	1	13	1	4		3		30
Kankakee	6	1	4		2	1			14
Kendall	2								2
Knox	6	3	8		1				18
Lake	4		3		2				9
Lasalle	11	4	15	2	6	3	1		42
Lawrence	2	2	1						5
Lee	4	1	4		1		1		11

1900 Counties	Weeklies				Dailies				
	Rep	Dem	Ind	Others	Rep	Dem	Ind	Others	Total
Livingston	5	2	7		1				15
Logan	1	3	7				2		13
McDonough	4	5	7		1				17
Mc Henry	11	1	2						14
Mc Lean	3	2	20	1	1	1			28
Macon	1	3	7		1	1	1		14
Macoupin	3	3	10		1	1			18
Madison	5	3	7		2	1			18
Marion	3	5	3		1	1			13
Marshall	4	3	3						10
Mason	3	1	3						7
Massac	3		2						5
Menard	1	1	4						6
Mercer	1	1	4						6
Monroe	1	1							2
Montgomery	3	4	5		1	1			14
Morgan	2	2	4		1	2			11
Moultrie	1	3	2						6
Ogle	12	1	4						17
Peoria	6	4	12		1	2	3		28
Perry	3	1	1				1		6
Piatt	3	1	3						7
Pike	1	4	7						12
Pope	1		1						2
Pulaski		1	2						3
Putman	1		1						2
Randolph	3	4	2						9

1900

Counties	Rep	Dem	Ind	Others	Rep	Dem	Ind	Others	Total
Richland	2	2	2			1			7
Rock Island	2	2	6		2	2	1		15
St. Clair	4	4	8		2	2	1		21
Saline	2	2							4
Sangamon	6	3	18		3	1			31
Schuyler	2	1					1		4
Scott	1	3	1						5
Shelby	2	3	7				1		13
Stark	3	1	2						6
Stephenson	4	4	3		1	2			14
Tazewell	3	3	9		2	1			18
Union	1	3	2						6
Vermillion	9	4	7	1	3	2			26
Wabash	1	1			1				3
Warren	3	1	5				2		11
Washington	3	2	2						7
Wayne	2	2							4
White	3	3	1						7
Whiteside	7	3	4		2				16
Will	6	3	8		1	1	1		20
Williamson	3	1	3		1				8
Winnebago	6	1	2		2	1			12
Woodford	2	3	5						10
Clay	3	2							5
Total	366	220	480	10	82	52	41	1	1252

1910 County	Weeklies				Dailies				
	Rep	Dem	Ind	Other	Rep	Dem	Ind	Other	Total
Adams	1	3	8		1	3			16
Alexander	1		1		1	1			4
Bond	1	2	3						6
Boone	1		1		1				3
Brown	1	1	1						3
Bureau	5	1	7						13
Calhoun	1	1							2
Carroll	8	1			3	1			13
Cass	2	2	3		1	1			9
Champaign	7	2	6		4				19
Christian	1	1	6		1	2			11
Clark	2	1	3						6
Clay	3	2							5
Clinton	2	1	2						5
Coles	5	3	2		2	3			15
Cook	38	5	69	7	10	1	12	3	145
Crawford	1	2	2						5
Cumberland	1	2	1						4
DeKalb	11		2		1		1		15
DeWitt	2	1	4		1		1		9
Douglas	4	2	3						9
DuPage	5	1	1						7

1910	Weeklies				Dailies				
County	Rep	Dem	Ind	Others	Rep	Dem	Ind	Others	Total
Edgar		3	3		1	1	1		9
Edwards	2		2						4
Effingham	1	3	3			1			8
Fayette	1	2	4						7
Ford	4	1	3		1				9
Franklin	3	1	2						6
Fulton	5	4	7		1		1		18
Gallatin	3	2							5
Greene	3	4	1		1	1			10
Grundy	4		1		2				7
Hamilton	1	1	1						3
Hancock	4	2	11						17
Hardin	1	1							2
Henderson	4	1							5
Henry	7		5		1				13
Iroquois	8	3	4						15
Jackson	4		1		3				8
Jasper	2	2	1						5
Jefferson	1	1	1		1	1			5
Jersey	1	1	1			1			4
Jo Daviess	3		4		1				8
Johnson	3								3
Kane	10		4	1	5				20
Kankakee	9	1	2		2	1			15
Kendall	2								2
Knox	4	1	9		1		1		16
Lake	4		5	1	2		1		13

1910 County	Weeklies				Dailies				
	Rep	Dem	Ind	Others	Rep	Dem	Ind	Others	Total
LaSalle	13	3	9		6	3	1		35
Lawrence	2	1	2						5
Lee	5	1	2		2	1			11
Livingston	9	1	8		1				19
Logan	1	2	7		1	1			12
Mc Donough	4	2	5		2				13
Mc Henry	11		1						12
Mc Lean	3	2	15		1	1			22
Macon	1		5		1	1			8
Macoupin	3	3	10			1			17
Madison	7	4	5		3	3			22
Marion	2	3	3		1	1			10
Marshall	4	3							7
Mason	2	2	4						8
Massac	2		3						5
Menard	1	1	3						5
Mercer	2	1	4						7
Monroe	1	1	1						3
Montgomery	4	3	5		1	1			14
Morgan	1	1	3		1	1			7
Moultrie	1	3	3						7
Ogle	9		4						13
Peoria	6	2	4		2	1	2		17
Perry	2		2				2		6
Piatt	2	1	5						8
Pike	2	5	8						15
Pope	1								1

1910 County	Rep	Dem	Ind	Others	Rep	Dem	Ind	Others	Total
Pulaski	5								5
Putnam			2						2
Randolph	5	1	2						8
Richland	2	2	1				1		6
Rock Island	4		6		3		1		14
St Clair	4	3	11		2	2	2		24
Saline	2		1		1				4
Sangamon	4	2	11		2	2			21
Schuyler	1	2	2				1		6
Scott	1	3							4
Shelby	2	3	6				1		12
Stark	3								3
Stephenson	3	2	3		2	1			11
Tazewell	3	3	8		1	1			16
Union		2	5						7
Vermillion	4		10		3	1			18
Wabash	1	1			1	1	1		5
Warren	1	1	6		1		1		10
Washington	4	2	2						8
Wayne	2	2	1						5
White	2	5	1						8
Whiteside	5	2	3		2				12
Will	6		5		2		1		14
Williamson	6	1	3			1			11
Winnebago	4		4	1	2		1		12
Woodford	1	2	6						9
Total	373	152	420	10	92	42	33	3	1125

1915	Weeklies				Dailies				
County	Rep	Dem	Ind	Other	Rep	Dem	Ind	Other	Total
Adams	2	3	10		1	3			19
Alexander	1				1	1			3
Bond	2	1	2						5
Boone	1		1		1				3
Brown	1	1	1						3
Bureau	4	1	8						13
Calhoun		1	1						2
Carroll	8	1	1		2				12
Cass		2	4				1		7
Champaign	4	2	8	2	4				20
Christian		1	5		1	2			9
Clark	2	1	3						6
Clay	3	1		1					5
Clinton	1	1	1						3
Coles	2	3	4		1	3			13
Cook	31	4	73	11	7	2	15	12	155
Crawford	2	3	3						8
Cumberland	1	1	1						3
De Kalb	7		3	1	1				12
De Witt	2	1	4		1		1		9
Douglas	3	2	1	1					7
Du Page	2		7	1					10
Edgar		3	3		1	1	1		9
Edwards	3		1						4
Effingham	1	3	3			1			8

1915 Counties	Weeklies Rep	Dem	Ind	Others	Dailies Rep	Dem	Ind	Others	Total
Fayette	1	2	3						6
Ford	5	1	3						9
Franklin	2	2	2						6
Fulton	3	4	6		1		2		16
Gallatin	1	2	1						4
Greene	2	4		1		1			8
Grundy	3		1	1	1			1	7
Hamilton	1	1	1						3
Hancock	4	2	10						16
Hardin	1		1						2
Henderson	3	2	1	1					7
Henry	6		3	1	1			1	12
Iroquois	6	3	5						14
Jackson	3	1	1		2	1			8
Jasper	1	2	2						5
Jefferson	1	1	2		1	1			6
Jersey	1	1	1			1			4
Jo Daviess	3		5		1				9
Johnson	1								1
Kane	8		2		3			1	14
Kankakee	8		5		1		2		16
Kendall	3								3
Knox	4	1	10		1		1		17
Lake	4	1	5	1	2				13
Lasalle	11	3	7	1	6	3	1		32

1915 County	Weeklies				Dailies				
	Rep	Dem	Ind	Other	Rep	Dem	Ind	Other	Total
Lawrence	2	1	2						5
Lee	3	1	2		1		1	1	9
Livingston	6	2	6	1	1				16
Logan		1	7				3		11
Mc Donough	4	2	6		2				14
Mc Henry	7		1						8
Mc Lean	3	2	16		1	1			23
Macon	1	1	5		1	1			9
Macoupin	3	2	9			1			15
Madison	5	2	5	1	1	2	1		17
Marion	1	2	4		1		1		9
Marshall	3	1	2						6
Mason	2	2	4						8
Massac	2		2						4
Menard	1	1	3						5
Mercer	1	1	6						8
Monroe	1	1	1						3
Montgomery	4	3	4				2		13
Morgan	1		2		1	1			5
Moultrie	1	3	3						7
Ogle	10		2						12
Peoria	4	2	5		2	1	2		16
Perry	2	1	1				1		5
Piatt	1	1	6	1					9
Pike	2	4	9						15
Pope	1								1

1915

County	Rep	Dem	Ind	Other	Rep	Dem	Ind	Other	Total
Pulaski			2	1					3
Putnam			2						2
Randolph	3	3	2	1					9
Richland	1	2	1				1		5
Rock Island	4	1	6		2	1			14
St. Clair	4	2	8		2	1	2	1	20
Saline	3		2				1		6
Sangamon	4	3	12	1	2	2			24
Schuyler	1	2							3
Scott	1	3							4
Shelby	1	3	7	1			1		13
Stark	3								3
Stephenson	1	2	4			1	1		9
Tazewell	1	3	10			1			15
Union		2	2						4
Vermillion	2	1	12	1	2	2			20
Wabash	1	1			1	1			4
Warren			5		1		1		7
Washington	3	2	2						7
Wayne	1	1	1						3
White	2	4							6
Whiteside	3	1	3		2				9
Will	7		6		1		1		15
Williamson	3	2	4		1	1			11
Winnebago	5		3		2		1		11
Woodford		1	7						8
Total	294	144	439	31	68	37	44	17	1074

CHART VII.

NUMBERS AND POLITICS OF WEEKLY PAPERS IN ILLINOIS 1880-1915

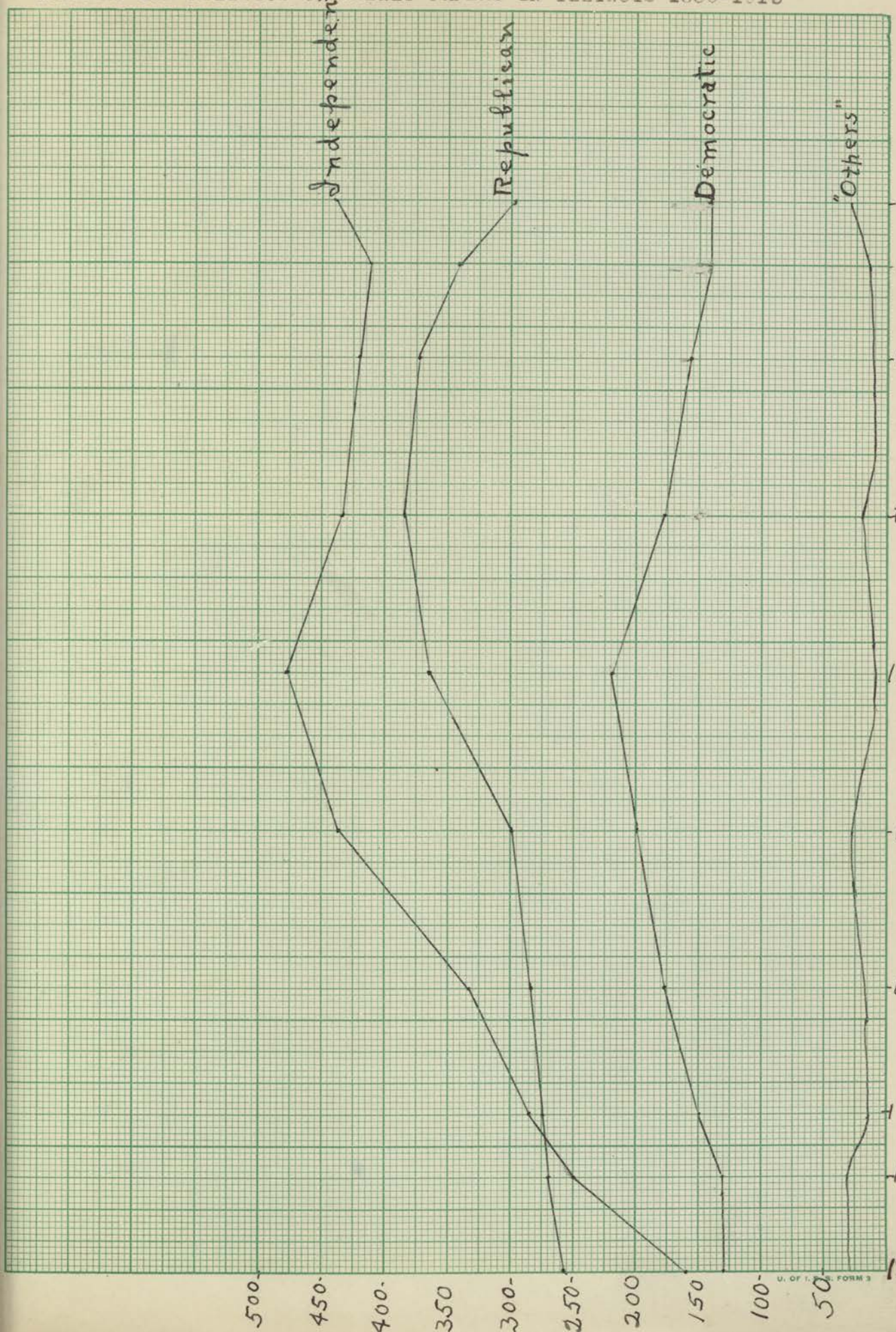
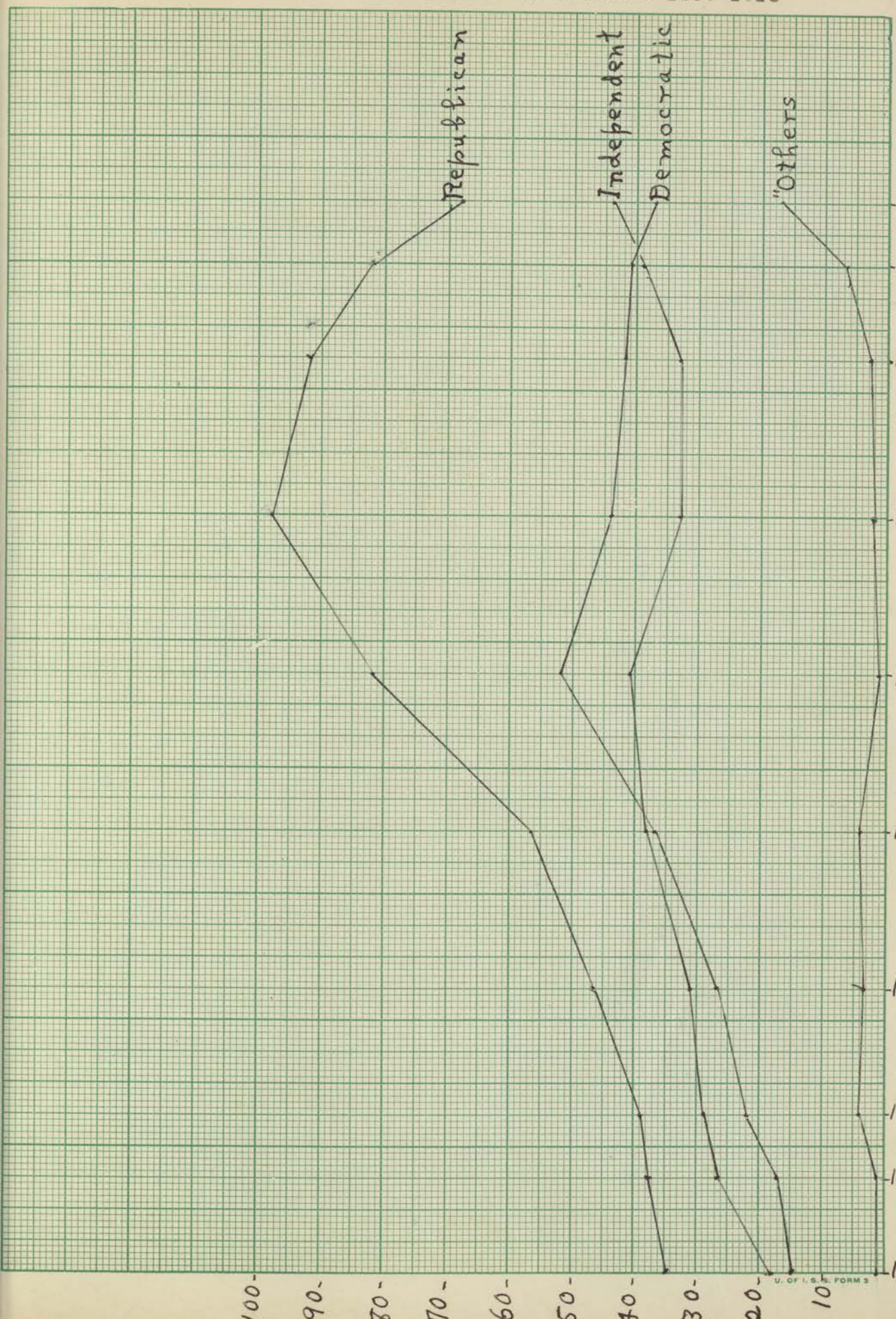


CHART VIII.

NUMBERS AND POLITICS OF DAILY PAPERS IN ILLINOIS 1880-1915



CHAPTER V

Contents

Number of Pages.

A comparison of the modern newspaper with a sample of the 1880 product discloses the fact that the former contains more matter than the latter. Particularly is this noticeable in the number of pages printed.

In 1880 the typical weekly newspaper contained only four pages, those of this size being much more numerous than those containing a greater number. Even the dailies had not advanced beyond the four-page stage, with the exception of six -- The Joliet Republican, Chicago Inter-Ocean, Chicago Times, Chicago Tribune, Quincy Whig, and Illinois State Journal, which printed respectively eight, twelve, ten, twelve, eight and eight pages. Of the weeklies, but ten printed regularly over eight pages.

But by 1912 -- and conditions have changed little since then -- the eight-page weekly was the type, having superseded the smaller paper. Only one hundred and twenty-one weeklies printed four pages, while six hundred and eighty-seven printed eight. Even eight pages would not contain the news printed by one hundred and twenty-four weeklies, whose size varied from ten to eighty pages, the latter being Sunday papers. Among the dailies there were a few four-page papers in the smaller cities, but in Chicago twenty-eight or thirty-two pages were frequently printed at an issue on week days, while the Sunday papers printed many more.

The following table shows this change:

	Weeklies				Dailies			
Year	4-page	8-page	Others	Total	4-page	8-page	Others	Total
1881[1]	333	232	9	604	63	3	3	69
1913[2]	121	687	132	940	38	54	73	165

	Total		
Year	4-page	8-page	Others
1881	396	235	12
1913	159	741	205

Data on magazines and other periodicals are more difficult to secure, as they vary their size from issue to issue, but in a general way it may be said, that with the tendency toward concentration of the business into the hands of fewer and stronger publishers, the periodicals are growing in size.

Size of Pages.

This increase in the number of pages contained in the publications of our state would in itself be inconclusive evidence that more matter was being published, if we did not also consider the size of the pages.

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[1]Ayer's Newspaper Annual ----------1881.

[2]Ayer's Newspaper Annual ----------1913.

For a number of years there has been an agitation in favor of more condensed newspapers, papers in which the news would be presented more in the form of a succinct summary, and printed on pages small enough so that readers could avoid the physical encounters which accompany the handling of the present blanket sheets in a crowd, as on a street car. For various reasons the "tabloid" newspaper has been advocated, by readers and by some publishers, but the idea has not attained successful realization in our daily press. One or two Chicago publishers have attempted it, but the diminishing returns in the business department effected a resumption of the previous form.

Back in 1890 we find the daily News of Chicago voicing the sentiments of many when it says:[3] "The whole tendency of these papers is in the wrong direction, and is due to a misconception of the wants of the reader. . . . . The paper of the future will be intensive instead of expansive. It will be edited in the printing office instead of forcing the readers to do their own editing. It will give the news in the compactest possible form, and will studiously eschew all forms of sensationalism. When the public realizes the deteriorating influence of blanket sheet papers upon mental strength, it will not be long in lifting newspaper publishers to a higher plane in catering to public wants."

Gerald Pierce, for years a prominent Chicago newspaper man, wrote in 1909:[4]"A distinct tendency toward 'tabloid' news has developed in recent years, and some publishers have discovered

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[3] Quoted in Printers' Ink, Vol. 3 No. 13 page 295.

[4] The Fourth Estate March 6, 1909, page 9.

to their delight that circulation increased as news was condensed."

The experiments along this line do not appear to have been generally successful, however.

The reasons for this failure of the tabloid newspaper are several. In the first place, it is more expensive to produce from a mechanical standpoint. There are several operations which must be performed on any page, no matter what may be its size, which do not vary greatly with the size. The stone work, time required for locking up, labor and time of stereotyping or electrotyping, placing the form or plate on the press, all remain about the same, so it is manifestly economy to have as few pages as is consistent with other demands.

When a publication begins to feel crowded for space, it may increase the number of pages or increase the size of the pages. As a matter of fact, the Illinois publications have done both. The cheapest way usually is to increase the size of the pages, and the number of columns is increased from six to seven, from seven to eight, and the columns lengthened proportionally.

In 1914 the last of the big Chicago dailies had adopted the eight-column page, although some of them had clung for years to the seven-column form.

So it has come about that the average newspaper has larger pages than it formerly had.

With the magazines the tendency is not so evident, although there seems to be a slight trend in this direction for the same reasons that have brought it about in the case of the newspapers. The magazines, however, on account of the nature of their contents are designed for more careful reading and must be put up in con-

venient and more permanent form. Then, too, the average circulation is larger than of the newspapers, so the costs of the operations mentioned bear a smaller proportion to the total than in the case of the newspapers.

Another reason for the failure of the tabloid newspaper idea is the growing custom of telling most of the news in the headlines and the first paragraph. This enables the busy reader to grasp the gist of the day's happenings at a glance, and to peruse more leisurely any part of it that appeals particularly to him.

Again, the increasing facilities for obtaining news from all parts of the world have more than counteracted the tendency toward the publication of less matter, even though the matter be condensed in the editorial office. Accompanying these changes in news gathering have come the mechanical improvements in the industry, which make possible the publication of larger papers.

In the magazine field, however, we find that the demand for more condensed, confirmed presentation of the news has been met by the weekly or monthly magazine which sums up the news of the previous days and gives it to the readers stripped of the unessential and doubtful. Such a publication is The World Today, which correlates and supplements the hasty, fragmentary presentation of the hurried daily press.

Supplements.

Not only have the total contents of the modern publications been increased by the issuing of more and larger pages regularly, but there has arisen also the supplement to swell the volume of reading matter offered the subscriber in the course of the year.

These supplements may be of several kinds. There are the Sunday supplements, obtained in many cases from independent concerns which prepare them for a number of newspapers in non-competing sections of the country. The Sunday magazine section came into general use about 1902, while the high class illustrated Sunday supplement on supercalendared paper followed about two years later.[5]

Then there are the supplements provoked by the desire to reap a revenue from increased advertising and having as their immediate excuse the celebration of some national holiday, or the boosting of the town's advantages as a place of residence or business. Often these special editions are engineered by a specialist who makes a business of going from place to place and getting out such editions. Occasionally a publisher is sufficiently enterprising to perform the extra labor himself, and of course reap the financial rewards.

A factor in the increase of these special editions is the illustration, which has made them of greater interest. Other mechanical improvements, mentioned in a previous chapter, have contributed to the conditions making them a physical possibility.

Character of Contents.

The subject matter of any newspaper can be divided into five general parts: News, Illustrations, Literature, Opinion and

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[5]The Fourth Estate, March 6th, 1909, page 9.

Advertisements. These can be still further sub-divided.[6]

In compiling the following data we have chosen to combine News, Literature and Opinion into one general head of Reading Matter, leaving Illustrations and Advertisements to be dealt with separately.

Change in Character of Reading Matter.

The following table, showing in number of column inches the amount of each kind of reading matter contained in the Chicago Tribune for the indicated dates, illustrates the general movement among the metropolitan dailies of the better class. The figures are my own.

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[6]This classification is used by Dr. Delos F. Wilcox in his article entitled, The American Newspaper; A Study in Social Psychology, in the Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, Vol. 16; 56-92, from which we quote, and also by J. E. Rogers in his work, The American Newspaper. The subject is one for study by the sociologist or journalist more particularly than by the economist, but a brief mention of it may not be entirely out of place in such a study as the present one. It does not pretend to be exhaustive, but is designed to be rather suggestive.

Chicago Tribune.	1880 May 1 Sat. Inches	1890 May 3 Sat. Inches	1900 May 5 Sat. Inches	1910 May 7 Sat. Inches
News				
a. War			38 3/4	
b. General			27[7]	
1. Foreign	98 1/4	31 3/4	168 3/4	767 1/2
2. Political	238 1/4	234	197 1/4	344 3/4
3. Vice and crime	113	60 1/4	55 1/2	39 3/4
4. Miscellaneous	162 1/4	192	349	375 3/4
c. Special				
1. Business	431 3/4	452 1/4	232	341
2. Sporting	10 3/4	109 1/4	140	229
Literature	259	120 1/4	143 1/2	129 1/2
Opinions				
a. Editorials	112 3/4	117 3/4	82 1/4	51
b. Letters and Exchanges	438 1/4	160	54	43 1/2

Each of the first three issues contained sixteen pages of seven columns each. The last issue contained twenty-eight pages, most of the extra pages being taken up with matter connected with the death of King Edward VII of England and with his successor. This accounts in large measure for the increase in foreign matter in the last issue, although such had been gaining anyway.

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[7]Summary and Index.

There is no startling change in the amount of space devoted to political matters, although this variety of news is so sporadic that much more data would have to be taken as a basis for deduction. The space devoted to vice and crime seems to be steadily on the decrease in the Tribune, in spite of the clamor raised against the increase in this class of news. The space given to miscellaneous news of an interesting character has increased greatly, much of this being local news of the city or state, calculated to interest the readers by its nearness to home.

Business news occupies less space than it used to, in spite of the greater interest in things of a business nature. This is accounted for by the great growth of trade journals, which have appropriated this class of news to themselves, treating it in the specialized fashion demanded by the modern business man. The increase in sporting news is a striking phenomenon. The professionalization of sport is largely responsible for this, the outcome of a game in Chicago being of more interest to the residents of Urbana than the result of the game on the same day in which the local high school played.

Literature used to be quite an important feature in the newspapers. It was inexpensive to secure, could be set up when other copy was scarce, and interested the readers in the days when there was less opportunity for buying good books cheaply and magazines filled with good literature for a dime or a quarter. As in the matter of business news, the magazine, together with the cheap novel, has usurped this field.

The editorial, once so powerful, has seemed to degenerate, or the taste for it has degenerated, until two or three columns satisfies the demands of the readers, whereas a page or more used to appear daily. The reasons for this are varied and many. Among them is the increasing impersonality of the daily press. We have few papers reflecting the character of the editor as did the old time papers, edited by a Horace Greeley or Charles Dana. The editorial writers are unknown to us, the paper is owned by a corporation without a soul, and withal, we do not so much care what some hireling editorial writer thinks on a subject, the facts concerning which we also have access to. This growing intelligence of the masses of readers is still another influence contributing to the decline of the editorial department. We are inclined to feel that the editorial is the expression of only one man's opinion anyhow, and that our opinion is worth as much as his.

The character of the editorial has changed also. Formerly it used to be political in nature almost always. Now economic and social questions, treated in other than the political aspect, are prominently handled. The tone is much milder, personalities are less frequently indulged in, which perhaps accounts for the lack of interest displayed in them.

The increase in news matter has had a strong influence in crowding the editorial into a relatively smaller place, also.

Letters and exchanges occupied a much larger part of the paper formerly than they now do. In the days of more limited circulation, these exchanges were not so liable to overlap as at present, while with the improved telegraphic news service, the

Chicago papers can print the New York news as soon as the New York papers do without waiting for the eastern papers to find their westward way through the mails.

These constitute the chief changes in the larger papers, as regards amount and kinds of news printed.

The smaller papers have retained something of the style prevailing among the larger papers twenty or thirty years ago, with some variations.[8]

The amount of political news is smaller, while foreign news finds little favor with the modern country editor. He inclines more toward news of a strictly local character, leaving the events of wider interest to be heralded by the metropolitan dailies and magazines. Sporting and society news is lacking, but personal items are found in abundance. Business news except of a local nature is not published at all. The whole division of news which we have designated as Special is passed over by the rural publisher very lightly.

Exchanges are used freely, but editorials are very often entirely omitted, this latter matter depending on the personality of the publisher.

Literature, such as stories, continued and short, is made more of than in the daily press. This matter is secured by the publisher in plate or ready-print form very cheaply and adds to the interest of his paper in the homes where reading matter is not abundant.

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[8]Cf. table on next page.

	Albany Review Jan. 7, 1916.	Wayne County Record, Fairfield. Jan. 6, 1916.	Bement Register. Jan. 6, 1916.	Dahlgren Echo. Jan. 6, 1916.	Times-Herald, Aledo. Dec. 30, 1915.	Bowen Chronicle. Jan. 6, 1916.
General News.	25.0	24.3	36.3	16.3	34.0	46.5
Foreign	1.1		0.1			
Political			0.1			
Vice & Crime	0.9		1.4	0.8		
Miscellaneous	16.5	15.2	26.1	11.4	13.8	36.6
Personal	6.5	9.1	8.6	4.1	20.2	9.9
Special News	7.7		10.0	2.1	2.8	2.1
War	7.7		8.1	1.1		
Business					0.7	
Sporting			0.4		0.5	
Society			1.5	1.0	1.6	2.1
Opinion	1.2	32.5	3.8	15.3	2.0	4.3
Editorial		13.9	2.2	7.4		4.3
Letters & Exchanges	1.2	18.6	1.6	7.9	2.0	
Literature	11.3	4.3	10.1	23.1	0.3	14.5
Total Reading Matter	45.2	61.1	60.2	57.8	38.1	67.4
Illustrations	2.8	2.1	0.4	5.3		11.8

The chief characteristic of the weekly and small daily is its growing tendency to concentrate on news of a thoroughly local interest, in which respect it is very different from its predecessor of thirty years ago. Then, local news was scarce and it was much easier to re-print something from an exchange than to dig up local news with the meager facilities for communication existing. As Professor Scott says concerning the earlier papers, "Usually the remoteness of the event seemed to increase its importance, and one finds more often an account of the hop yield in Silesia than of the wheat crop in Illinois."[9]

The Chicago papers have always occupied a high place among American dailies as to the character of their contents. Prof. Wilcox says, "Chicago, the great industrial and commercial center of the North Central States, stands second in literature and near the foot in crime and vice. While exhibiting no striking peculiarities as a news center, Chicago furnishes perhaps the best average among its leading newspapers of any great city in the United States."[10]

Professor Fleming, writing in the American Journal of Sociology, says: "The great metropolitan newspapers of Chicago, in response to the broad range of interests naturally held by the mixed population of Chicago and the North Central States, are notable for the national and cosmopolitan view of American and foreign events which they present daily. It is a safe assertion that the Chicago papers give a better proportioned presentation of the news

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[9] Newspapers and Periodicals of Illinois, 1814-1879, Introduction, page 33.

[10] D. F. Wilcox in Annals of the American Academy Vol. 16 p. 71.

of the whole world than do those of New York, where a much greater amount of space, proportionally, is taken up with the news of New Yorkers, whose typical attitude seems inclined to be that their metropolis is world enough in itself." Similar accusations of lack of balance in the New York papers are found, while nearly all writers on the subject commend the Chicago papers for this broad, world view of affairs.

An enthusiastic eulogist in Newspaperdom writes in 1895 of one of the Chicago papers: "There is no paper published in America that so nearly approaches the true journalistic ideal."

The Chicago papers, at least up to the advent of the Hearst papers, which had a perceptible influence upon the others, enjoyed a reputation for cleanliness and wholesomeness equalled by no other big dailies in the country.[11]

W. J. Abbott says: "The cleanliness of the Chicago Dailies is perhaps their most admirable characteristic. Almost without exception they are edited for the home circle. . . . . They are pre-eminently news papers. The range of their telegraphic reports is vastly greater than that of any other newspapers in America. . . They are more distinctly national than the papers of any other city in the union."[12]

In our press there has been growing a spirit of public service, equalled by perhaps no other industry. Naturally, when a newspaper is thinking first, from necessity perhaps, of making both

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[11] Cf. table from The American Newspaper at end of chapter.

[12] Review of Reviews, June 1895, page 646. Article entitled, "Chicago Newspapers and their Makers."

ends meet financially, it is not so easy to turn aside into paths of gratuitous service. But as the newspapers of Illinois and especially of Chicago have become more firmly established they have ceased to become mere reflectors of the day's doings. As James Keeley, for many years with the Chicago Tribune and now with the Chicago Herald, said recently, "I believe that the real newspaper has outgrown the looking-glass stage as the sole object of its existence. The big development of the modern newspaper will be along lines of personal service."

So we find special departments springing up, giving free medical advice, free legal advice, hints on cookery, stock-raising, baby-feeding, fashions, sports, and general educational matters.

With the advent of rural free delivery the papers devoted themselves assiduously to the farmer, experts being hired to edit the farm pages. This has to quite an extent passed into the hands of the agricultural and stock journals. While the class journals have appropriated a part of this work to themselves, there remains much that is done by the newspapers.

There is a perceptible effort being made by the great newspapers to develop a sort of personality, a personal bond between it and its readers through departments, conducted by editors whose names are known, and who answer personal queries by letter and in print. This movement tends to counteract the tendency of anonymity which has characterized some of our big newspapers since the days of the paper that reflected the views of the one dominating editor.

The signed article has come back somewhat, so that we feel a personal interest in the daily thoughts of Henry Hyde, B. L. T.,

Ring Lardner or Oscar King Davis.

Much space is devoted to promoting things that tend to good government, to public health, to city improvement, to educational, moral and religious betterment. They boost a movement to raise a fund for a new Y. M. C. A. building, they advertise broadly a revival campaign, they search out forgotten waifs and publish the facts so that kind-hearted readers may help them, and in many ways promote the welfare of the community.

Some of the papers have conducted series of studies along educational lines, the articles printed being written by specialists and authorities in their respective lines. Pure food editions city beautiful editions, sane Fourth compaigns, and similar efforts on the part of papers all over the state have helped greatly in the elevation of the standard of citizenship and living.

The Sunday newspaper, with its scores of pages of reading matter, is a phenomenon of recent development. A dozen years ago, when it was increasing in size weekly and no apparent limit had been set to its size and scope, the fear was expressed in certain quarters that it would drive the ten-cent magazine quite out of existence. A big Chicago advertiser wrote in 1902:[13] "If the Sunday newspaper continues to grow and improve it will eventually supplant the ten-cent magazine. The contents are steadily improving, and when a better quality of paper can be used it will be only a matter of improved machinery. The Sunday editor will work with the leisure of the magazine editor and in time will produce so good a paper that there will be no room for the ten-cent

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[13] Printers' Ink, July, 1902 page 10.

magazine." Of course his fears have been unrealized, as the Sunday paper has apparently stimulated the demand for light reading to the benefit of the cheap magazines.

The contents of the extra pages is composed largely of "feature" stories, written by syndicates specializing in this field, or by members of the staff in their spare time. The grade of these "features" has steadily risen as the field widened and drew more writers into it, so that, altho the Sunday paper has not displaced the magazines to an appreciable extent, it may rival them in the quality of contents.

Outside the class journals, which are discussed elsewhere, Illinois has had very few magazines. The contents of those of a literary character which have been started were of a very high class frequently, but they did not live. Not until comparatively recently have any real magazines been able to obtain sufficient support to make certain their continued existence.

These are largely of the light fiction type. The business activity of Chicago is so great that the demand for reading has taken the direction of easy, entertaining matter, calculated to rest the reader and not to make him think. Of course the eastern magazines are widely read in Illinois, but we are dealing with those printed in Illinois, which of course have their largest sale near Chicago.

As far back as 1880 a contributor to the Western Magazine writes: "Rushing, trade-maddened Chicago is well supplied with periodicals that uphold its myriad trade and labor and religious fields of activity, yet not a sheet for its literature. Why

should New York have its Scribner's and Harper's, Boston its Atlantic, Philadelphia its Lippincott's and we only our dailies and the denominational weeklies?"[14]

Again in 1890 Maurice Thompson, writing in "America" on literary topics, says: "The time is ripe in Chicago for such a venture, as it was in New York City twenty years ago when Holland, Smith and Scribner's changed the center of literary forces from Boston to New York by the founding of their magazines"[15]

But, although the time seemed ripe twenty-five years ago, the best that Illinois has done is The World Today and a few fiction magazines like the Red Book. Other forces are still too strong, and until the population about Chicago is greater than that about New York, the center of literary publishing will probably remain where it is.

Perhaps the most striking advance in quality of contents has been made by the class journals. Starting as experiments or bald advertising grafts, many of these publications have developed into extremely creditable journals, numbering among their readers the most progressive people interested in their respective lines, be they medicine, law, business, religion or what not.

The field was new in the 'eighties' and the editors rarely combined the literary, journalistic, and technical qualifications necessary to success. To the development of specially trained editors and writers may be attributed much of the rapid progress made by this class of publications.

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[14] Quoted in Fleming's article entitled "The Literary Interests of Chicago," in American Journal of Sociology, Vol. 2, p. 509.

[15] Quoted in Printers' Ink, Vol. 3, No. 21, p 525. Nov. 1890.

Only the best of the class journals have survived the severe competition, the tendency toward concentration being pronounced. Each paper deals with a narrow phase of interest, handling this intensively. Perhaps this is the most striking development in this field since 1880. At that time the class journals were inclined to cover much more ground than at present, but with the growth of knowledge and literature on each subject it became necessary to specialize, until at present the class journal is the source of much information of value to merchants, manufacturers, lawyers, farmers, bankers, preachers and others.

The periodicals printed in some language other than English are read mainly by the immigrants who have not yet learned English or by those who prefer the language of the fatherland for some reason, although they may be able to read English. These papers and magazines furnish the newly arrived immigrant his first ideals of American citizenship and life, and many of the earlier ones did good service in this regard. They endeavored to inculcate patriotism for the adopted land, and a love for the ideals of the United States. But this was in a day when the immigrants were coming from Ireland, Germany and the Scandinavian peninsula.

More recently they have been coming from Italy, Greece, Austria-Hungary, Poland and the Balkan States. The difference in the class of immigrants is made evident when we notice that many of the papers published in these languages are Socialistic in their nature, and do not serve purely as news medium or to educate the reader to his new duties as a citizen of this country.

As a general rule, these foreign language periodicals print

quite a little news from the old country that does not find its way into the other papers. Special correspondents for some of the more important papers, and the clipping of exchanges from back home help to keep the reader in touch with the land he has left. The ordinary news of the day is sometimes given a nationalistic tinge, as in the time of war in which the fatherland is involved.

Some of the better established of these publications are ably edited, but many of the newer ones are mediocre, as the immigrants who read them had not attained in the old country a very high plane of education.

Perhaps it is unnecessary to suggest that the foregoing are generalities, from which many departures may be found. Each publication caters to a certain class of readers and prints the kind of reading matter demanded. Some feature the sensational, others suppress it; some emphasize the political aspect, others ignore it; some stress the local news, others the foreign. Again, an editor with a strong personality may impart to his paper an individuality utterly at variance with that of his contemporary across the street, although they both are read by practically the same people.

The evening daily is designed to appeal more strongly to the women of the community than is the morning daily. The morning daily is bought freely by the men on their way to work, or at least read during the trip, and often is left at the place of business. Then, the women are commonly employed about their household tasks during the forenoon and a part of the afternoon, so have little time to read. But the evening paper comes into the home when leisure is available, and the wife can read it.

The different editions of the same paper also are constructed to appeal to different classes. For instance, the state or early mail edition of a Chicago daily contains very different matter from the city edition printed an hour or two later. The readers outside of Chicago are less interested in local happenings than in world, national and state news, so the city news, unless of unusual importance, is omitted. Some papers put out a rural route edition that contains matter especially of interest to the farmer.

Illustrations.

The printed illustration is comparatively modern. In the 'eighties it was used practically never, in the 'nineties but rarely, and has grown in use with the advance of the present century. In the days when illustrations must be printed from wood cuts and steel engravings they were little used on account of the expense involved. The dailies did not use them, because it took too long to make the plates. Now that the plate for a photo-engraving can be manufactured in about half an hour the illustration is widely employed, expecially as the product is much better than formerly was secured by the wood or steel hand engraved plate.

In the Chicago Tribune of corresponding dates, the first Saturday in May of the years 1880, 1890, 1900, and 1910, we find that on the first two dates the paper contained no illustrations at all,while in 1900,ninety-two column inches were printed, and in 1910 five hundred and five inches. This last was unusual and due to the death of King Edward VII of England and the succession of the present monarch to the throne, but it serves to show the difference

between the old and the new. If the German emperor were to be killed, the papers issuing from the presses an hour later would contain many pictures of him, the members of his family, his ancestral castles, while other personal touches would be given through the use of illustration which could not be obtained by language alone.

The extent to which the illustration has been used by different kinds of publications has varied. The large dailies never appear without some illustrations, while small dailies and weeklies often print none at all. Even here, however, the small publication is the gainer by the progress made in the photo-engraving art, for illustrations may be secured very cheaply in plate form or in ready print, so that the country publisher need not offer his readers a pictureless sheet. Then, too, most weekly publishers are within a few miles of a city where a half-tone plate may be secured in a day or two, so that events of local interest occurring early in the week may be illustrated at small expense.

The class journal has perhaps made the widest use of the illustration, practically every page of some of them containing illustrated matter. This is especially true of journals devoted to manufacturing, the use of the illustration aiding greatly in the effective presentation of matter relating to machinery and processes. Agricultural and stock journals are full of pictures, too, as are those devoted to sporting, juvenile and other interests.

The use of the illustration is not confined to the news columns, the power of advertising matter being enhanced by the judicious use of cuts. The seller of a certain machine can tell

more in one picture than in a column of words, besides, more people will examine the picture than would read the words. Indeed the illustration was used more freely in advertisements than in the news columns until about fifteen years ago.

The influence of the illustration upon the standards of life prevailing among people today would be difficult to estimate. Fashions, scenes in other places, noted people, etc., are shown in our periodicals now, so that the public is no longer provincial in its views, as are communities where knowledge of other conditions is not prevalent. The economic influence upon demand has surely been important.

Advertising Matter.

Amount of Advertising Matter.

There is more advertising printed in Illinois than there was in 1880, both in the aggregate and in the average per publication. The average proportion of space devoted to advertising by the Chicago dailies in 1880 was about one-fourth, while at the present time it is at least one-third. The Chicago Tribune for May 1, 1880, contained 22% advertising, while May 7, 1910, the percentage was 33.3. The larger papers generally estimate the proper proportions of news to advertising at about two to one.

The small papers show the same tendency, although at present they devote a larger proportion of their space to ads than do the dailies. For instance, an investigation including six weekly papers for the same date, Jan. 6, 1916, showed that the percentage of advertising matter to the total space varied from 20.6% to 60.6% with the average of 40.7%. This may be said to be about the average proportion for small papers, where news is scarce and

advertising rates are low. The enterprising publisher aims to keep his paper about one-half ads, but usually falls a little below his ideal.

Naturally there is a wide variation in the proportion of ads and reading matter in different papers, depending on local conditions, such as the rate asked for space in the publication. Some editors prefer to ask a higher rate and run a larger proportion of reading matter, while others keep the rate down and run more ads.

The chief generalization we are able to make on this point is that the smaller papers give up more space to advertising matter than do the larger papers.

The trade journals perhaps devote more space to ads than any other class of publication, owing to the fact that there is so slight a distinction between reading matter and advertising from the standpoint of the reader. Some of these magazines run as high as 80% ads.

Of course the real proportion to be maintained is between the combined incomes from the two sources - - advertising, and subscriptions and expenses. The larger papers and magazines receive a larger proportion of their revenue from advertising than the little weeklies do.

In Printers' Ink,[16] we read that four-fifths of newspaper income comes from the advertisers, only one dollar in five earned by the big daily being received on subscriptions, but now only a few higher priced magazines of moderate circulation are sustained

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[16] August, 1909, page 43.

from this source. Advertising rates have been raised and subscription rates lowered gradually until the present situation has been reached.

A common estimate of the proportion of income derived by the city dailies from advertising is three-fourths.[17] In 1914 Victor F. Lawson, publisher of the Chicago Daily News says: "The Chicago Daily News is selling its city circulation for one-half million dollars a year less than the cost of the white paper and prospering."[18]

But in the smaller papers the receipts from subscriptions usually exceed those from advertising. An editorial in the Fourth Estate[19] quotes as follows from the Mattoon Journal, "The receipts from subscriptions in this office exceed those from advertising by a considerable degree." The editor of The Fourth Estate comments, "The popular idea regarding daily papers is wrong. City papers may be able to disregard the money received on subscription, but small papers cannot."

Kinds of Advertising Matter.

The advertising matter in a publication may be classified in any one of several ways, depending on the purpose in view. The most common, and a satisfactory one for present ends, is into display and classified advertising, a distinction based upon the typographical differences. The display matter is, or may be, in type larger than the news matter, while the classified advertising

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[17] Williams and Martin. The Practice of Journalism, page 16.

[18] The Fourth Estate, November 14, 1914 p. 2.

[19] March 19, 1904, page 10.

is set in type as small as or smaller than the body type of the publication. Frequently a distinction exists in the manner of buying and selling the space for the two kinds of advertising, the display being figured on the basis of the column-inch or some square measure, while the classified is estimated by the word or line. Usually the rate is different. Besides the two main classes mentioned, some advertising may be found set in the same type as the news matter and included with it. Such advertisements we have denominated "readers."

Using the foregoing classification we are able to point out some tendencies of the past thirty-five years.[20]

1. The proportion of display advertising to the total amount of advertising is greater in the small papers and magazines than in the large dailies.

Some of the latter carry more classified than display advertising, while many weeklies print none at all. The highest percentage carried by any of the six weeklies studied[20] was 8.2 while one had none.

The growth of the classified department in the larger papers has been due to several causes. In the first place, it is a result of the increase in advertising rates. As rates mounted higher it was found necessary to make some provision for the advertiser who could not afford to buy display space. Of course he might purchase an ad half an inch long, but it would be lost in the larger ones. The principle of classification, the second reason for the growth in this kind of advertising, was employed,

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[20] Cf. tables at end of chapter.

with the result that the reader could find advertisements of interest to him without reading many that were not. Conversely, the advertiser could reach all of the public that was interested in his advertisement without using more space than he could afford. In the smaller places, where the rate for space is low and the amount of advertising in the paper is small, neither of the above causes operates to stimulate classified advertising.

An additional cause has operated to build up the classified department of many dailies. The classified advertising possesses a decided news value, which has been recognized by the publishers, a severe competition for this class of business resulting. This competition often took the form of lower rates, so that classified advertising has been greatly increased in volume.

The classified department has not attained the development in the magazines that it has enjoyed in the daily press, although occasionally a classified column is found. The principle of classification is applied, however, to the display advertising, those dealing with the same topic being placed together, as automobiles, insurance, educational institutions, books, etc. This arrangement has added to the effectiveness of the advertising.

2. The "readers" are found mostly in the small papers. The editor feels that it is an imposition upon the subscriber to beguile him into reading these advertisements under false pretenses, as it were, but here again it is the economic motive that dominates the situation. The rate for these "readers" is usually higher than that asked for the same number of lines in the classified column or an equivalent space in the display columns, and the

country editor closes few sources of income.

3. The size of the display advertisements is increasing.

In 1880 the display advertisements in the Chicago dailies were almost never more than two columns wide and usually were but one column in width. In the issue of the Chicago Tribune for May 1, 1880, the largest single advertisement was one column wide and the length of the page. Ten years later, May 3, the largest advertisement was two columns wide and the length of the page, and others of the same width, but shorter, appear. By 1900, larger advertisements are being used more generally, full-page displays by one firm being not uncommon. From 1900 on the tendency has been toward larger advertisements.

4. The character of the advertisements differs with the nature of the publication.

For instance, the difference between the magazine and daily newspaper advertising has been likened to that between artillery and musketry fire. The magazine enjoys an average life of one month, while the paper rarely lives twenty-four hours. Hence, the magazine advertisements may be longer, more carefully reasoned and may cover more points, than can be the case with those appearing in daily papers. It does not have to make its appeal so quickly.

With class journals, the fact is obvious. The Inland Printer has its advertising columns filled with advertisement giving publicity to machines and other equipment of interest to the printer, while the others follow the same system.

The distinction between the news matter contained in the morning and evening editions of the daily has been pointed out. Suffice it to say that the character of advertisements conforms to

the character of the readers quite as readily as does that of the news.

To generalize: the advertisements are adapted to the demand of the subscribers in the same way that the reading matter is.

5. Again, the ads in the daily papers are much better planned than those in the smaller papers. The advertisers in the large dailies must be big firms or they could not pay the price for space. As big firms, they can hire a specialist to look after the writing of their ads, whereas the little country merchant advertises rather blindly and with little thought or knowledge as to the preparation of his copy. The magazine ads are probably the best planned of all, as their circulation is more nearly national and the advertisers are the manufacturers of articles enjoying a national market, who can afford to employ the best talent obtainable for the preparation of their advertisements.

In all classes of publications there is a very noticeable improvement in the subject matter and presentation of advertisements, the improvement showing first in the magazines, later in the dailies, and still later in the rural weeklies.

The latter has been aided to some degree by two factors of importance only comparatively recently. The manufacturer of articles sold through the merchant in the small town frequently stimulates the sale of his product by advertising in the local paper over the name of the local dealer. These ads are usually superior to those written by the merchant himself. Another aid to the rural merchant has been the introduction of advertising "services" prepared by some enterprising specialists in ad writing

and sold to the dealer. These services are devised for almost every line of retail business and include copy and usually cuts. All the merchant needs to do is to hand the printer the next sheet of copy and the accompanying cut, thereby lessening the trouble incident to the preparation of his ad.

Then, of course, through reading the ads in the better class of publications, the merchants have assimilated some of the principles of ad writing, with the result that the advertisements in even the smaller papers are far superior to those of thirty-five or even ten years ago.

6. There has been a decided movement toward cleaner advertising, the better class of publications now refusing to accept advertising for goods or services of doubtful value, as patent medicines, liquors, quack doctors, etc. Some publications go to some pains to ascertain the reliability of the articles exploited through their columns. For example, the Chicago Tribune of May 1, 1880, contained 120 inches of medicine advertisements out of a total of 536 inches. The largest ad in the paper was for Dr. Clark Johnson's Indian Blood Syrup. In the issue of May 3, 1890, 100 inches of medical advertising appear, and May 5, 1900, 61 inches. May 7, 1910, the amount had been cut to 17 inches, all of which was probably fairly respectable in character.

This cleaning up of the advertising columns is an accompaniment of the rising economic independence of the publishers, the papers in which the cleaning up process has been delayed being usually those which are so pressed financially that any income, no matter what the source, is accepted. Of course we must

set aside individual cases of unprincipled publishers who are at the same time prosperous. It is probable, also, that with the advance of the social sentiment in our society and the consequent decline of the frontier individualism, that the editor has come to appreciate the position of his paper as a quasi-public enterprise.

The small paper, being usually a poorly paying proposition, publishes these doubtful advertisements more frequently than the larger papers. The environment of a small town is not so conducive to a recognition of social obligations, and furthermore, the publisher of the rural weekly has not devoted much thought to these matters, seeing in his business simply a means to wring a meager living from society.

However, the general tone of advertising is improving, although the fake advertisers received their first check in the refusal of the larger publishers to accept their advertising. Robbed of this avenue of publicity, the advertisers many of them were forced to suspend or depend on other means of reaching the public. In addition to refusing to print their advertising, some journals exposed these frauds, materially diminishing their number and the amount of advertising offered to publishers.

From the Chicago Tribune.

Figures indicate column inches.

	May 1, 1880	May 3, 1890	May 5, 1900	May 7, 1910
Advertisements	536 3/4	923 1/2	848	1414 1/2
a. Want	121 3/4	358 3/4	343 1/4	745 1/2
b. Retail	234 3/4	360	275 1/2	390
c. Medical	120 1/2	100 1/2	61	17 1/2
d. Political and Legal	7 1/2	11 3/4	8 1/4	
e. Miscellaneous	43 1/4	87 1/2	149 1/2	190 3/4
f. Self	9	5	10 1/2	70 3/4
Percent of ads to total	22.3	38.4	34.9	33.3

Percentage of Advertising to total space.	Albany Review Jan. 7, 1916.	Wayne County Record, Fairfield. Jan. 6, 1916.	Bement Register Jan. 6, 1916.	Dahlgren Echo Jan. 6, 1916.	Aledo Times-Herald Dec. 30, 1915.	Bowen Chronicle Jan. 6, 1916.
Classified	3.3	2.0	0.5		8.2	0.6
Display	42.6	32.1	31.2	33.6	46.8	19.1
Readers	3.7	1.6	3.7	3.3	2.9	
Self		0.8	4.0	0.5	2.7	0.9
Total	49.6	36.5	39.4	37.4	60.6	20.6

News Center	Chicago.	Average for 12 big cities.
No. of papers analyzed	10	
Total no. of columns	1742	
I. News	50	55.3
a. War news	18.7	17.9
b. General news	16.1	21.8
1. Foreign	0.9	1.2
2. Political	6.1	6.4
3. Crime and Vice	1.9	3.1
4. Miscellaneous	7.2	11.1
c. Special News	18.2	15.6
1. Business	10.6	8.2
2. Sporting	5.3	5.1
3. Society	2.3	2.3
II. Illustrations	3.9	3.1
III. Literature	4.9	2.4
IV. Opinion	6.7	7.1
1. Editorials	4.7	3.9
2. Letters & Exchanges	2.0	3.2
V. Advertisements	34.5	32.1

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[21]From The American Newspaper by J. E. Rogers, page 49.

CHAPTER VI

Organization for Operation

The organization of any newspaper or periodical office is into three general departments: the editorial, business and mechanical. There may be wide variations in the emphasis laid on these departments in the different kinds of publications; there may be differences in the sub-organization of these departments; the establishment may employ a thousand hands, or the proprietor may himself perform all the work of the three departments, but the principles of organization remain the same.

The method of treatment employed in the following pages is to take up these departments, one by one, describe briefly the more complex forms of organization, and point out variations in cases of particular kinds of publications, laying particular stress upon the rural weekly, the typical Illinois newspaper.

Part I. The Editorial Department

The fundamental function of the editor of any publication is the same--to decide what shall be published in that publication, and then to secure that material. This function is exercised to some degree by every editor in the state.

The simplest way for him to exercise this function is to collect and write the entire contents himself, as is sometimes done. But the more common way is to delegate a part

or all of the work to subordinates, so that it now happens that the editor of a publication, especially if it be a large one, may write not a word of its contents.

As an aid to a clear understanding of the ways in which this delegation of powers may take place, we will examine the organization of some typical classes of Illinois publications, beginning with the most complex, a Chicago daily newspaper.

At the head of the editorial department stands the editor-in-chief, who is responsible directly to the publisher, if indeed the two positions are not held by the same man. The editor-in-chief has general supervision of the work of handling the contents of the publication, although on a large daily the managing editor often does the active superintending of details, leaving the editor-in-chief to look after the editorial department proper or the writing of the editorials.

Under the editor-in-chief or managing editor are the city editor and the telegraph editor. These men are responsible directly to him and in turn have a large number of men under them.

The subordinates: reporters, re-write men, artists, cartoonists, correspondents, editors of different departments such as literary, society, real estate, sporting, financial, dramatic, art, music, exchange, Sunday, etc., are partly under the authority of the telegraph editor and partly under that of the city editor, the managing editor deciding what work each shall do if there is any conflict.

The city editor attends to the local news and the telegraph editor to all that comes in from outside the city, whether it come by telegraph, telephone or mail.

The local news is gathered largely through reporters, who are sent out from the office. In Chicago much expense is saved by the device of the City News Bureau, which furnishes to all the papers equally the facts regarding local happenings of interest, amounting to probably 50,000 words a day. Each paper may send its own reporters to cover the event, or may write it up in the office, as it chooses, but the facts are very largely secured from this news bureau. Perhaps this scheme has tended to make the Chicago papers a little more uniform in contents, but it has also made them better news media at lower cost to the subscriber. Even where keen competition exists among newspapers, it is rare that one paper secures important news while the others fail to do so. Hence, the Chicago system does away with much duplication of news-gathering force with probably little loss in the amount of news printed. The Tribune, for example, has only thirty reporters in Chicago, exclusive of those employed by the City News Bureau.

The influence of the telephone upon news gathering is plainly seen in the city work. The reporter sent to cover an event, particularly if he be employed by the City News Bureau, does not return to the office to write up his story, but steps to a 'phone and gives the facts to indoor reporters or "re-write" men, who put the matter into shape for the printers.

This has made possible a considerable saving of time in getting stories into print.

Mention should be made at this point of the work of the corps of photographers, now essential to every metropolitan daily. These men accompany the reporters, if indeed the reporter does not play the dual role, and secure views of the events in such cases as it is possible and desirable.

The telegraph editor handles all matter coming into the office from outside the city. Some of the sources of this matter we shall now examine.

Special Correspondents

Every Chicago daily has a number of special correspondents in various parts of the country and abroad. The Tribune has three hundred in Illinois alone, outside of Chicago. These special correspondents may be on the staff at a regular salary, or may be paid according to the amount of their correspondence that gets into the paper. These special correspondents are indispensable, as they cover territory not covered in any other way.

Recently, during the European war, the work of these special correspondents has been particularly noticeable, giving the reader the intimate personal view of events which is not obtained from the more condensed telegraph press dispatches.

Press Associations

There are several press associations operating in Illinois. The most famous is the Associated Press. This organization is a kind of coöperative news gathering and dis-

seminating scheme, by which each newspaper belonging is obliged to furnish to the central office any news of general interest happening in its territory, and in return receives news from the territory covered by the other members and also by the special correspondents. There are forty members of the Associated Press in Illinois, and eighty-nine correspondents in places not covered by the member newspapers, so the news of the state is pretty well collected through this organization, as is the news of the entire world.

Other press associations are the United Press, which is similar in scope to the Associated Press as a news gathering agency, but its service, except for Sunday morning papers, is only for afternoon papers. There is a feature news organization called the Newspaper Enterprise Association, and also the International News Service, the Hearst bureau.

These press associations have grown so efficient in handling big news that they have largely obviated the necessity for special correspondents in many fields. The supplementary efforts of the special correspondents are valuable chiefly in adding individuality to the news columns of a progressive paper.

The Editorial Writers

This is really a third department in the big dailies, the men engaged in that work devoting their entire time to it. They are provided with every facility in the way of reference material and given sufficient leisure to enable them to write carefully.

The foregoing furnishes some idea of the way the editorial department of a Chicago daily is organized, but it must not be overlooked that practically every feature has undergone a development since 1880.

There were at that time no papers as large as the present ones, fewer men being required to gather the news. This has been only partially counteracted by improved facilities of transportation and communication.

There were no photographers, for no method was known for producing a low-priced cut even though it had been possible to obtain the pictures.

Then there has been great progress made by the various news gathering associations, a subject we shall now treat more in detail.

The Associated Press was incorporated in 1892 under the laws of Illinois as a stock corporation. In 1895 eleven Chicago newspapers belonged to it, and twenty-two papers in other parts of the state.[1] One of the by-laws of the corporation required the papers receiving its news service to enter into a contract not to purchase news from any rival association.[2] Another of its by-laws forbade the Association to furnish its service to any newspaper in the territory of one of its members without the consent of that member.[3]

The Chicago Inter-Ocean, which belonged to the

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[1]The Fourth Estate, July 4, 1895, p. 1.

[2]The Outlook, June 23, 1900, pp. 429-430.

[3]Chautauquan, Vol. 31, p. 8.

Associated Press, violated its contract by purchasing news reports from the New York Sun. The Associated Press was about to withdraw its service from the Inter-Ocean when the latter secured an injunction against the withdrawal of the service. The Illinois Supreme Court, by a unanimous decision, declared in favor of the Inter-Ocean on the ground that the manner in which the Associated Press had used its franchise had charged its business with a public interest. "The obligation," said the court,[4] "to serve the public is not one resting on contract, but grows out of the fact that it is in the discharge of a public duty, or of a private duty which has been so conducted that a public interest has attached thereto." The decision made it unlawful for the Associated Press to limit its service to a single paper in a locality and was a victory for the independent paper.

Instead of yielding the point, the Associated Press suspended operations as an Illinois corporation[5] and straightway reorganized in New York, May 22, 1900, with practically the same officers and stockholders.[6] As such it continues to do business.

For purposes of facilitating operation, the United States is divided into four divisions, the news from all parts of each division going to the central office for that division.[7]

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[4]184 Illinois Reports, 438-455.

[5]The Outlook, Feb. 28, 1914, p. 427.

[6]Twelfth Census, Vol. IX., p. 1,102.

[7]F. M. Atkinson, The Associated Press.

Here it is edited and relayed to other points. For example, Chicago is the central office for the central division and all news from that division comes in there. This news is condensed before being sent to papers outside this division, but to papers within this division it is sent out in full, except to small papers who have contracted for fewer words per day, a "pony service," as it is called. The Chicago office of the Associated Press receives and transmits about 60,000 words or fifty columns of news daily.

During the 'nineties a fierce struggle was in progress between the Associated Press and the United Press, an older organization exercising similar functions. But by 1895 the younger association had passed its rival, having thirty-three members in the state, while the United Press had but eleven.[8]

In 1900 the United Press abandoned the contest and the Associated Press seemed to have the field to itself. But immediately its supremacy was challenged by the Publishers' Press Association and the Scripps-McRae Press Association, both of which began a vigorous campaign for business. The Publishers' Press covered the eastern part of the country and the Scripps-McRae Association the western part, the two entering into an agreement whereby they exchanged news at Cleveland. In 1900 they served eleven papers in Illinois and had about three hundred subscribers all told. In 1907 the two organiza-

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[8]The Fourth Estate, July 4, 1895, p. 1.

tions, together with the Scripps News Association,[9] were merged into the United Press Associations and incorporated at Albany, New York, with a capital of $310,000.[10] The United Press now serves only afternoon and Sunday morning newspapers.

The Hearst papers have developed an important news-gathering organization with branches in all parts of the country. They sell a news service to other papers, thereby adding at once to their revenue and facilities for securing news. In 1911 the name of the organization was changed from the Hearst News Service to the International News Service.[11] Allied with this is the National News Association, which conducts a syndicate business.

In 1914 the Central News of America was incorporated at Albany, New York, with a capital of $30,000.[12] Its objects are the same as those of the larger associations.

The Laffan News Bureau is operated by the New York Sun, and sells its service to other papers. It developed through efforts of the Sun to obtain its news without the aid of the other associations and it now serves several Illinois papers.

Another method of securing news from outside the

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[9]This Association had previously covered the territory west of the eastern line of Colorado.

[10]The Fourth Estate, July 6, 1907, p. 2.

[11]The Fourth Estate, Jan. 6, 1912, p. 7.

[12]Typographical Journal, March 1914, p. 284.

locality is by coöperation on a smaller scale independently of these agencies mentioned. For example, the Chicago Tribune in 1913 entered into an agreement with the London Times whereby the papers were to exchange world news and intellectual features.

Bureaus[13]

The bureau or news association supplies news stories, feature articles, illustrations, or editorials to papers that want them. The distinguishing characteristic of these bureaus is that they supply a specific line of information to their clients. This matter is distict from the general news of the day, which is handled by the press services like the Associated Press, the United Press, etc.

Many of these bureaus are situated at Washington, because much news of a special nature originates at the capital. We may take a hypothetical case involving the debate on some measure of general interest in Congress. The press services will give a resume of the facts and the larger papers maintaining special correspondents will receive as full dispatches as they care for, but the smaller papers are helpless to get any additional news in case the measure should be of especial interest to the locality in which the paper is published.

Such a paper may become a patron of one of these bureaus and telegraph instructions, stating the information

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[13]Cf. Harrington and Frankenberg, Essentials of Journalism, pp. 160-163.

desired and how much is wanted. The bureau will furnish this matter, interviewing members of Congress if necessary, or performing any other duties of the special correspondent.

Further, in case some event occurs, which the bureau thinks would interest the people of a particular constituency, a query is directed to the papers in that locality, asking if a report is wanted, and if so, how much. In Washington there are many official facts which interest only limited sections of the country and are therefore not utilized by the press services, but these bureaus do a nice business in gathering them, arranging, digesting and presenting them for consumption in those communities where they will be of interest.

In other places bureaus flourish, although in smaller numbers. For example, if a man in Seattle is convicted of some crime of too little importance to get into the press dispatches and it turns out that his home is in Champaign, Illinois, some bureau in Seattle is likely to wire one of the Champaign papers telling a few of the facts and asking whether more is wanted.

Another line of endeavor is the securing of illustrations for papers having no special correspondent in the vicinity. Of recent years this has grown into a business of immense proportions, so that the press dispatches are often supplemented by illustrations secured from one of these bureaus.

Much of the matter printed in newspapers today is furnished them gratis from some bureau which is boosting something. This news partakes of the nature of advertising matter,

but if the editor is in sympathy with the movement or is particularly destitute of real news he may use it.

The political bureau is a good illustration of this variety. From this office is sent out to publishers a great quantity of literature bearing on the issues of a campaign, the merits of candidates, or what not. The publisher uses it or not as he sees fit. Large organized business groups like the liquor dealers, manufacturers who benefit by a high tariff, and such, maintain these bureaus for the purpose of moulding public opinion. Great enterprises like an exposition must have a press bureau which furnishes the papers with interesting information regarding the attractions offered. Similarly, press bureaus in miniature supply papers with advertising matter, more or less cleverly disguised as news, designed to stimulate interest in some summer resort, brand of automobile, theatrical venture, or anything else which seeks the public's money. "Press agent" yarns are too familiar to require further comment.

The feature articles, which have become a characteristic of our Sunday papers, as well as many of the cartoons, are furnished by syndicates or independent concerns, which may sell the same feature to papers in different parts of the country at the same time. There are a large number of these concerns selling, on contract, a stipulated amount of this matter to Illinois daily papers.

The Newspaper Enterprise Association is one of the

oldest of these, having been operating now about thirteen years.[14]

The Sunday magazines put out with some of the Chicago dailies are also printed by a syndicate and sold to several papers in different sections.

The Weekly Newspaper

The average country weekly has a very simple organization for gathering its reading matter. The publisher is in most cases the editor and writes the editorials when there are any, besides gathering most of the local news himself. Sometimes he may have assistance in gathering "locals and personals."

For the territory adjacent to the town, special or "country" correspondents are hired to send in weekly letters, narrating the happenings in their neighborhoods. Word of any event occurring too late for the letter is 'phoned in.

For the news of the world the editor is dependent upon one of two sources. He either "lifts" the news from the daily papers that find their way into his office, or it comes to him in the form of "ready-print" or "plate" matter. The former is purchased from a concern of the character of the Western Newspaper Union of Chicago, and consists of sheets of print paper, the size used by the paper purchasing it, with several pages already printed with news of a general nature. These pages commonly contain some advertising matter, for which

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[14]Printer's Ink, Vol. 43, No. 11, p. 13, June, 1903.

the Western Newspaper Union receives payment, and which lowers the cost to the country publisher, so that the read-prints can often be purchased almost as cheaply as the blank paper, saving the setting up of much type in the local office.

The stereotype plates are bought mostly from the Western Newspaper Union or the American Press Association, a wide range of choice being left the publisher in the selection of these plates. Proof sheets are sent out to the rural editor, and from these he makes up his order.

The ready-print industry was pretty well established in 1880, having been originated by A. N. Kellogg in 1865. The Chicago branch was established in 1871. The Western Newspaper Union was established in 1870.[15]

The American Press Association was organized in August, 1882.[16]

Competition among these firms and others was keen in the early days of their existence, the result being that publishers could obtain ready print for less than the cost of the white paper, the manufacturers making their profit from the advertising matter.

However, after the publishers of the small papers began to achieve more independence they demanded a better quality of reading matter and fewer ads in their ready-print. They were willing to pay for it, so the price at present is

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[15]The Fourth Estate, March 24, 1906, p. 4.

[16]Letter from Manager Gale of the Chicago office, American Press Association, to the author, under date of November 15, 1915.

higher than that of the white paper. Indeed, this demand for quality has gone so far as to induce the manufacturers to issue "adless"[17] ready-prints, which cost more than the old style, but there is said to be an increasing demand for them.

The Western Newspaper Union and the A. N. Kellogg Newspaper Company merged in 1906 under the former name,[18] leaving only the American Press Association as a competitor. It seems that the field was too small for even these two firms and in 1911 and 1912 the publishers were greatly benefited by a trade war between them. Each concern at this time furnished both ready-prints and plates. The American Press Association made about eighty percent of the plate matter while the Western Newspaper Union supplied eighty percent of the ready-prints.[19] Prices were cut in half and in third during the war, and finally, in 1912, the two concerns were enjoined from continuing the alleged unfair methods of competition or from combining.

Since that time the American Press Association has specialized on plate matter, practically abandoning its ready-print service, except an "adless" variety it puts out.

However, the American Press Association in November, 1915, was furnishing 840 offices in Illinois with plate matter.[20]

The system of buying their news already printed or all

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[17]Containing no advertising matter.

[18]The Fourth Estate, March 24, 1906, p. 4.

[19]Ibid. August 10, 1912, p. 2.

[20]Letter to the author.

set up in plate form ready to print has always appealed strongly to Illinois publishers. This is partly because there are so many weekly papers in the state, and partly because the ready-print and plate industry had its headquarters at Chicago.

In 1900 the census gave the number of Illinois papers operating on the coöperative plan as seven hundred and three, the largest number in any state.[21] In 1910 the Western Newspaper Union issued a report showing that it served 7,221 weekly papers, of which number 547 were in Illinois. This was the largest number in any state.[22]

The available data leads us to conclude that the number of papers using the ready-print services is on the decline. This is due to several reasons, prominent among which is the growing popularity of the plate matter.

Metal bases for the plates are furnished by the company, so that it is the work of but a moment to fill up a column or any number of columns or parts of columns with plates, all ready for the press. The wider range of choice in the selection of this material is appreciated by the publisher, who is not at the mercy of the manufacturers as in the case of ready-prints or "patent insides."

Another reason for the greater use of plates is found in the fact that the use of ready-prints deprives the publisher of some revenue he might derive from foreign adver-

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[21]Twelfth Census, Vol. IX., p. 1,104.

[22]The Fourth Estate, November 5, 1910, p. 13.

tising. Such foreign advertising as is carried in his paper is run on the ready-print side at an average rate of about two cents an inch. A living rate for foreign advertising is hardly less than eight or ten cents per inch, and that is what the publisher must charge for foreign advertising on the pages of his paper printed in his own office. Therefore, he is allowing his ready-print pages to compete with his home-print pages at one-fifth or one-fourth his price.

Neither is ready-print advertising so popular with the advertiser as it once was, the development of the advertising business having disclosed the fact that an advertisement must be written with especial reference to the community where it circulates. Especially is this true of newspapers advertising as distinguished from magazine advertising.

The prevalence of the ready-print and plate custom among Illinois publishers is illustrated by a statement appearing in the Chicago Tribune in 1904:[23]

"You can start and own a "newspaper" in Chicago for $10 or even less. More small weekly newspapers are started every year in Chicago than in any other city in the world, and more of them fail and retire than any other kind of enterprise. Ten percent survive the first year; five percent live to see their second birthday, but the large majority disappear within two months.

"The patent insides and the printed plate factories have so cheapened and simplified the business that anybody

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[23]Quoted in The Fourth Estate, October 15, 1904, p. 13.

with $10 or $15 can start his own newspaper.

"There are now in the neighborhood of 60 weekly and semi-weekly newspapers in Chicago in which nearly the whole matter is of the patent inside or ready plate kind. Not a week passes in which one or more of these ephemeral publications does not fail, to give place immediately to some new and equally evanescent journal."

The news matter contained in the ready-prints and plates is obtained by the manufacturers in two ways.

The late news they receive from some press association--the American Press Association gets its news from the Sun Press Association. The rest of the matter is prepared in their editorial department from exchanges and from other sources. Feature articles are partly so prepared and some of them purchased from outside sources.

Magazines and Class Journals

The editorial duties on a magazine or class journal vary with the character of the publication, the frequency of its issue, and its size.

As to the character of the publication.--If it is a fiction magazine of a simple type, the chief duty of the editor would be to pass upon manuscripts submitted, if the publication had sufficient prestige so that he was not obliged to exert himself to obtain them.

If the publication is of a religious character, for example, the editor may write much himself, may clip a good deal from other periodicals or books, or may edit communications

sent in from readers. The editor of a highly specialized trade, professional, or technical journal must do more than pass on articles offered or cull material from other sources. He must be thoroughly conversant with the trend of affairs in his line and know what sort of reading matter is required. Then he must get that matter, assigning to experts topics to be written up, or sending out staff members for certain items. Usually he must write much himself. Further, he may lead opinion in his particular line, as has A. H. McQuilken, editor of the Inland Printer of Chicago which magazine has not merely reflected developments in the printing industry, but has served as an instructor and accomplished much in the advancement of the industry.

Regarding the frequency of issue, it is evident that the oftener a publication is issued, other things remaining the same, the greater the editorial labor will be. More delegation of the editor's powers is made to subordinates, and the organization of the department becomes correspondingly more complex.

A similar principle is involved in the statement that the larger a periodical is,-the more matter it contains- the more editorial labor will be required for its production. Departments will appear, edited by different men or women, and the editorial staff will be enlarged accordingly.

Between the Chicago daily and the rural weekly stand many newspapers, varying in details of organization. The foregoing are illustrations of types merely. For example, a weekly

paper may buy no ready-print or plate matter, while a small daily may use both. An enterprising weekly might have a telegraphic press service or some feature service, while a daily might get on without either.

Part II. The Mechanical Department

When the copy leaves the editorial or business department it enters the mechanical department. It first reaches the composing room, where it is apportioned, by a foreman or copy-cutter, to the various compositors, hand and machine.

The hand compositors on a Chicago daily are used largely in setting parts of the ads and some of the heads. They are also used in the bank and make-up work described later.

The machine operators are not so numerous as the hand compositors on a large daily, although they set more of the type. The Tribune, e. g., employs about seventy-five hand compositors and about forty-five machine operators. In a large office the operators do not take care of their own machines, several machinists being employed, subject to call whenever anything goes wrong with the mechanism.

The type, after it is set, is taken in charge by bank men, who gather together the scattered parts of articles or advertisements and arrange them in such shape that proofs may be taken.

Several proofs are usually taken, one, together with the copy, going to the proof-readers, one to the business office, one or two to the editorial rooms. The proof-readers are usually considered a part of the composing room, and a very important

part, too. They mark errors on the proof sheets and return them to the foreman, who attends to their correction by the compositors. In the case of linotype matter, the corrected slugs are taken by the bankmen and inserted in place of those in which the errors occurred. If there is time, another proof may be taken, to be read only by the proof-readers. If not, the type is hurried to the make-up men. Frequently one of the editorial force looks after the trying and important task of arranging the matter in the forms. This work must often be done at high speed, and unusual ability is required to make the matter fit well into the space available, satisfying the demands of the business and editorial offices as regards position of certain articles or advertisements.

Here it is necessary to retrace our steps a little to mention the photo-engraving department. This has been described in a previous chapter, so it is required now only to mention that the cuts prepared in this department are placed in the forms by the make-up men along with the type and passed on to the stereotypers. The stereotypers take the type forms and from them make the plates, turning them over, ready for the presses, to the pressmen. They cast as many plates from each form as is demanded by the press capacity. As fast as the plates are completed, they are delivered to the pressmen, and are clamped to the cylinders of the presses. Commonly, all the pages are made up, stereotyped and on the presses, before the last form, held open for late news, is made up. When this reaches the stereotypers, however, it is but a few

minutes until the presses are running, as the plates are turned out at the rate of several a minute by the Autoplate, of which the largest papers have several.

The pressroom is perhaps as interesting as any department in the establishment, with the huge presses delivering the papers all assembled, folded and counted, at the rate of perhaps 100,000 an hour each. Over the presses preside pressmen, whose duty it is to see that the machines operate at all times properly. It is a responsible position, as a delay of ten minutes on one press may result in the missing of a train with the papers, so closely is time calculated.

As fast as the papers are off the press, they are hurried to the mailers. This department might perhaps be properly considered a branch of the circulation department of the business office, but we take it up here.

The mailers are organized with military precision, each man having his especial duty to perform. Some wrap the bundles for news dealers about the country, others run the papers through the addressing machines and then wrap them in bundles which go to certain towns or addresses in those towns. Others wrap papers singly in addressed wrappers. Papers that go by mail are sacked in the office, ready for the mail train. And every moment wagons or automoblies loaded with papers are dashing off to the stations to get their loads on the trains, or to make delivery to dealers about the city.

This is a skeleton sketch of the organization of a

large daily, in which seven hundred employees may be involved, as in the case of the Chicago Tribune.[24]

The weekly paper goes through essentially the same processes, except for the photo-engraving and stereotyping departments, although in most cases there is no composing machine and all the work is done by one or two persons. The type is set by hand, proofs read and corrected, forms made up and placed on the press, the press fed, and the papers mailed all by the same person.

Between the two extremes we find many degrees of complexity in organization. For example, on most papers the proof reading is done by the editorial force, the bank work and make-up may be attended to by the foreman of the composing room, the pressmen are probably employed at some other duty a greater part of the day, the machine operator looks after his own machine, and then the whole force falls to and helps mail the papers. In other words, specialization is not carried so far, and one man is obliged to perform several sorts of tasks.

Perhaps there are no stereotypers, the paper being printed direct from the type. This may be done on either a sheet or a roll fed press, the latter being faster and capable of getting out a paper of several thousand circulation without stereotyping. Many papers have no photo-engraving department, sending to some independent photo-engraving plant for their cuts.

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[24]Letter to the author from Business Manager Field of the Chicago Tribune under date of October 15, 1915.

Other parts of the mechanical process are also sometimes done outside the office. Some plants set their own type, but let another concern do the presswork, and this situation may be reversed. Or the entire mechanical process may be performed outside the shop which is a very common arrangement among many of the class journals and magazines in Chicago, where job printing establishments are numerous. This plan may be more economical in the case of a publication which could not keep a mechanical department of its own busy all the time. In fact, the scheme has been suggested for the Chicago dailies, whereby they would all use a huge central printing plant, which could be kept busy about all the time and therefore operated at a lower cost to each paper than the present arrangement entails. But the spirit of rivalry has so far been too keen to permit this.

Variations in the equipment are quite as great as in the force employed. The American Type Founders Company estimates[25] that the average little country weekly in Illinois with a circulation of from five hundred to one thousand has a plant costing from $1,000 to $1,500, while $800 would represent about the lowest value of any weekly plant in the state. There is another class of newspapers in towns of from five thousand to ten thousand, which require equipment running from $3,000 to $4,500, exclusive of composing machines.

In 1901 Mr. Byxbee[26] estimated that it would require

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[25] Letter to the author under date of Dec. 23, 1915.

[26] Establishing a Newspaper, pp. 41-43.

$3,257.08 to start a seven-column folio daily or weekly. He places the press at $2,200 and does not include estimate for composing machine.

At the other extreme we have the huge Chicago dailies, whose equipment would cost several hundred thousand dollars. For instance, the linotypes in the plant of any one of the four largest Chicago papers probably cost $100,000. The huge presses represent a tremendous outlay, while the other equipment brings the total up to a high figure.[27]

Part III. The Business Department

In the minds of most people who are unfamiliar with the actual conditions surrounding a newspaper establishment the idea is fixed that the chief work of publishing a newspaper consists in getting the news, writing it up, and printing it. In other words, the news and editorial department, together with the mechanical department, is the one ordinarily emphasized in the literature connected with the press, both fiction and the more serious works designed to enlighten the youthful

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[27] References for material in this section:

Byxbee. Establishing a Newspaper, Chaps. 6-9.

Williams and Martin. The Practice of Journalism, [Chap.6.

Olin. Journalism, pp. 41-43.

Harrington and Frankenberg. Essentials of Journalism, Chap. 14.

Handy. How a Newspaper is Made. In Mahin's Magazine, Vol. 2, pp. 526-529.

Given. Making a Newspaper.

Miscellaneous magazine articles and some personal familiarity with newspaper work supplemented the foregoing authorities in the preparation of this section.

aspirant for a journalistic career. The business department is usually given scant consideration, probably in some cases from a lack of knowledge on the part of the writer, and in many because a lack of interest is assumed on the part of the reader.

Treating the subject from the economic point of view, we cannot slight this department, even though it were lacking in interest. But this is not true, for there are just as many interesting assignments, just as many unexpected happenings, just as much of gratifying success and discouraging failure in the day's work of the man in the business department as in the life of the star reporter.

Furthermore, the business department is growing in relative importance. More and more is the publishing of a newspaper becoming a business enterprise, so much so in fact that we have recently heard charges that the editorial and news department is dominated by the business office. This may be true in some cases, and, however it may be, it is undoubtedly true that the business department is gaining in importance. This is shown in several ways.

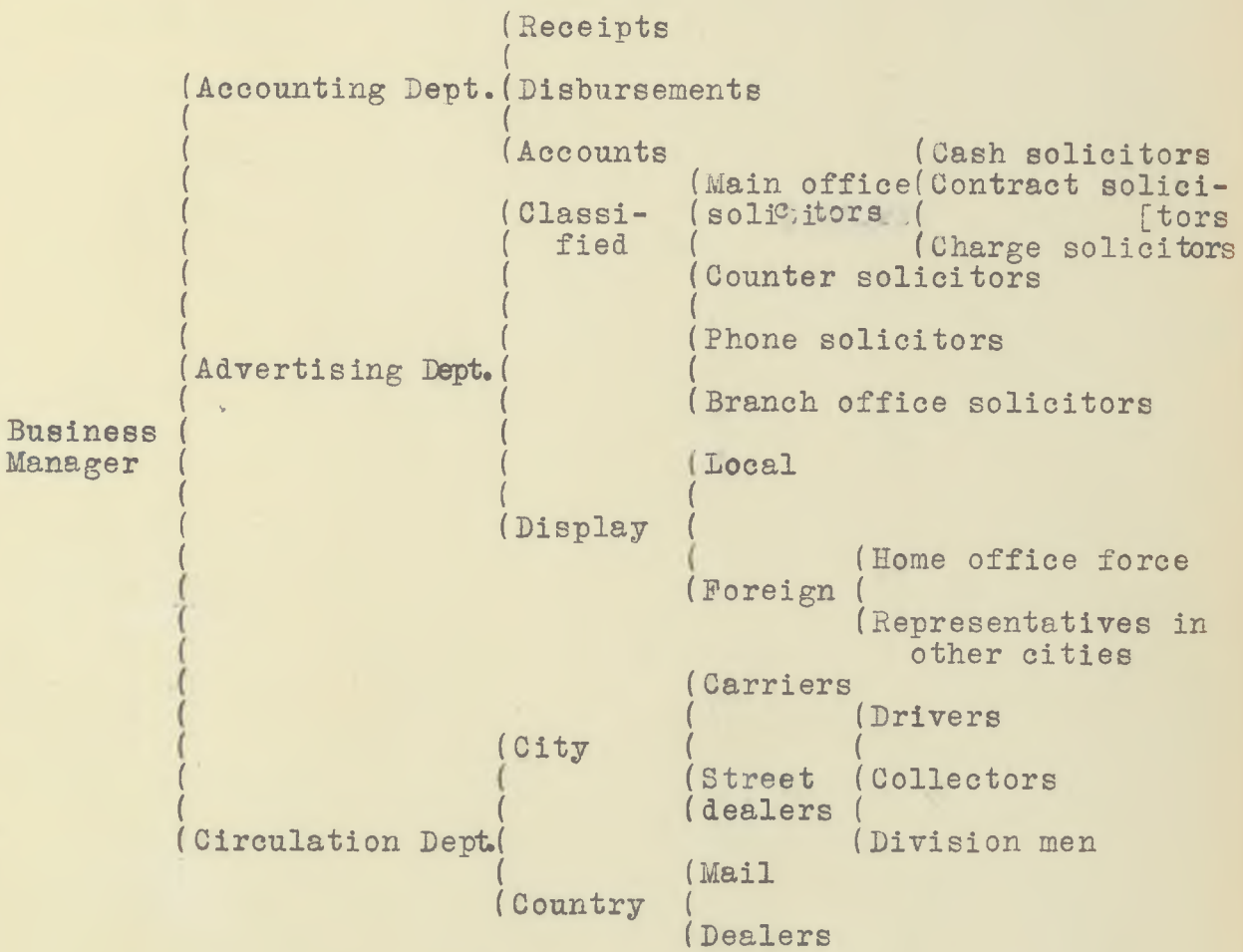
For example, the receipts from advertising have steadily increased in proportion to those from subscription. This is true particularly of the larger one-cent papers, which derive about three-fourths of their revenue from advertising and only about one-fourth from subscriptions.

In the matter of employees, the larger papers require more hands in the business department than in the news and editorial department. The Tribune at present employs about 700

people in the two departments, of which number 425 are in the business department and 275 in the news and editorial department, the proportion being about three to two.

For the better presentation of the subject, the business side of a newspaper may be divided into three divisions--Accounting, Advertising, and Circulation. Sometimes the mechanical department is included, but we have preferred to treat it separately.

The organization of the Business Department may be illustrated by the following diagram:



The Accounting Department of a newspaper deals with three main items, each of which includes many details. These three items are Receipts, Disbursements, and Accounts.

Receipts.--Under the head of Receipts the Accounting Department has the important function of determining that the proper charge is made for all advertising printed and all copies of the paper sold. When it is considered that sometimes a single issue of a Chicago daily may contain from two to three thousand separate advertisements, and may issue five or six hundred thousand copies of the paper the same day, the task of checking up these items appears appalling. After the charges have been made, it is necessary that collections should be obtained from advertisers and subscribers. This necessitates a vast amount of detail in the way of rendering bills, the number of these sometimes reaching 30,000 per month.

Disbursements.--Having determined that all the revenue to which the newspaper is entitled is properly charged and collected, it becomes necessary to see that the expenditures are handled properly. Bills must be audited, prices checked, remittances made at the proper time. The number of bills paid by a large newspaper in Chicago may reach as high as four thousand per month.

Accounts.--The third division we designate as Accounts. By this is meant the actual accounting itself, which includes the distribution of charges against the proper departments and the credits of collections in the same way. It is this department whose work shows whether the newspaper is making money or

losing it, and just where the gain or loss is taking place.

Advertising Department

The importance of this department from the revenue standpoint has been touched upon. As the newspaper has been placed upon a more strictly business basis, advertising has become more of a well-defined business than in the old days when rates for space were not fixed and the benefits of advertising had not been so thoroughly proven.

Having general supervision of the advertising department is the Advertising Manager, who has under him two lieutenants, one of whom looks after the classified advertising and the other the display advertising. In the big papers the classified advertising takes up about as much space as the display, but in the smaller papers it occupies a relatively small portion of the paper.

The Classified Advertising Department may be still further subdivided into the main office solicitors, the solicitors at the counter in the business office, the telephone solicitors, and the solicitors who work from the branch offices, if any are maintained.

The main office solicitors are given their assignments in the morning just as the reporters are, and report at the close of the day on their success. These men each have a definite territory to cover and are sometimes divided into squads, each having particular duties.

For example, the cash solicitors obtain petty want ads and collect for them in advance. If one of these cash

solicitors encounters an advertiser who seems inclined to sign a contract to take regular space, the second squad is informed, and the contract solicitors get after him and very likely sign him up. Having attached his name to a contract, the advertiser is next visited by the charge solicitors, whose duty it is to see that the advertiser takes all the space he ought to take. The interests of the advertiser are supposed to be considered first, and no doubt are by those solicitors representing the best papers, for this policy would pay in the long run.

Another division of the classified work is that of the counter solicitors in the business office. These receive the advertisements brought in by the public and figure charges on them, collect for them, and render assistance in the shape of suggestions concerning improved wording or time of insertions, so that the best results may be obtained.

One of the most interesting branches of the classified department is that which solicits and accepts want ads over the telephone. Many advertisements are voluntarily offered in this way, but many more are stimulated by means of the 'phone. The manager of this department furnishes his subordinates with assignments, and they call up and obtain many ads in this way. Where an advertisement is found in a rival paper it is answered by phone, if the phone number is given, and the advertiser importuned to insert an ad in the second paper also.

The remaining division of the classified department is found in Illinois in Chicago and consists of agencies, dis-

tributed about the city in convenient places, as drug stores, where ads are received and transmitted to the central office. Also, branch offices, modelled after the central office, are maintained by at least one of the Chicago papers in sections of the city some distance from the main officel

The want ads of any city paper contain many little human interest stories, some of which are followed up by the news department. A distracted mother advertises for information concerning her wayward son who disappeared some days ago. A convict whose term is about to expire appeals for a job after he is set free. Much romance is hidden in the classified pages of the modern daily which is never brought to light in the news columns.

The other main division of the advertising department is that which secures display advertising. On the Chicago papers fewer men are required to handle this work than are needed for the classified department, because the number of separate advertisements is so much smaller.

The solicitors of display advertising have become in most cases specialists in the line of business to which they make their appeal. The force of solicitors is divided on the basis of the men's fitness to secure certain kinds of advertising. For example, one man solicits only automobile advertising. He is an expert on automobile construction, knows the merits of the different cars, and is frequently in a position to aid the advertiser with valuable advice concerning the best methods of presenting his proposition to the public. Another

solicitor handles only real estate advertising, another only that concerning musical instruments, and so on. These men are commonly "graduates" of the classified advertising department, where the young men seeking to learn the advertising business are started.

The big department store does not require much assistance from the newspaper advertising staff as regards suggestions, as they hire an advertising manager of their own, who is usually a very capable person. But to the smaller business men the advertising solicitor of a large daily may make himself invaluable. He studies the business of his customer, tries to devise new means of obtaining business, in short, is a sort of efficiency expert whose advice is free for the asking to those who advertise in the paper he represents. This is the newer ideal of the advertising solicitor, and more and more is he a man sought after rather than shunned, as was so often the case until recently.

The other branch of display advertising is that which comes from outside the city, or what is known as foreign advertising. The larger papers maintain representatives in other cities to look after this class of advertising, New York being the city where most of the Western newspapers have men attending to their interests. Unless a paper is very strong it cannot afford to hire a man whose sole duty is to secure advertising for that paper. So it has come about that one man often represents several papers in non-competing sections, thereby lessening the expense to each paper and rendering each as good

service. Of course there is a separate office or department in the home office of the newspaper where all of this foreign advertising is handled.

Much of the foreign advertising is handled without any intermediary between advertiser and publisher, but with the smaller papers it has become customary for the large national advertisers to turn the matter over to some advertising agency, which in turn deals direct with the publisher. These advertising agencies are particularly strong in Chicago, as the representative newspaper of the middle west is still the country weekly. These advertising agencies commonly deal on a commission basis, fifteen percent being the usual rate charged. The average country publisher is eager to secure all the advertising he can from outside his home town to eke out his profits, and will usually run such advertising at a rate much lower than the published rate card. This fact is well known to the advertisers and agencies, but the advertiser, unless he does a large amount of such advertising, cannot afford to carry on the higgling process with the publisher. The agencies are equipped to do this and so to them is turned over the task in many cases.

The discrepancy between the published rates and the actual rates is brought out by the following table, presented by the Smitzler Advertising Company of Chicago as compiled from their experience in Illinois:[28]

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[28]National Printer-Journalist, Vol. 34:341, 1914.

Paper	Quoted Rate	Contract Rate
Hoopeston Herald	8¢ per inch	3 1/2¢ per inch
Dwight Star and Herald	12¢	9 1/2¢
Mt. Carroll Mirror	15¢	5 3/4¢
Dixon Telegraph	12 1/2¢	9 3/4¢
Polo Press	22¢	17 1/4¢
Oregon Republican	15¢	11 1/2¢
LaSalle Post	20¢	11 1/2¢

The competition among these advertising agencies has become very keen, so that their commission has been limited to about the actual cost of performing the service they render. Many of the smaller companies have been driven to the wall so that, although new ones are continually starting up, the bulk of the business is carried on by a few well-established concerns, in which both the advertisers and publishers have confidence.

Much national advertising is carried on directly with the publishers and some is handled through the sales agencies of the advertiser. Arrangement may be made with the local representative of a certain make of automobile to insert advertising matter in the local papers, payment to be made the publisher by the local dealer, the expense to be shared by the manufacturer.

Circulation

The third main division of the business side of a newspaper is that of circulation. Much rivalry has always existed between the various departments of the newspaper as to which was of the most importance. The advertising department

declares that without advertising revenue the paper could not live; the circulation department asserts that without circulation there would be no advertising; while the editorial and news department claim that without their services there would be no circulation and consequently no advertising.

It seems that the most successful manner of handling this division of labor is to regard the circulation department as the sales force, whose duty it is to dispose of the product.

As the circulation manager is the closest to the consumer of the manufactured product his advice on what sort of a product the public wants is worth much, and so he is consulted frequently regarding the value of news matter or feature articles. Sometimes, at his suggestion, the make-up of the paper is altered in order to conform to local prejudices or to appeal to certain classes or sections where the circulation is great. The circulation manager is also in a position to counsel the advertising manager as to the value of certain classes of advertisements, knowing as he does who reads the paper.

The circulation of a newspaper may be divided roughly into two groups--city and country circulation. The first may be yet further divided into that delivered direct by carrier and that sold through the medium of stores, news stands and newsboys. The first class, that delivered direct to the subscriber by carrier, is eagerly sought after, as it provides the paper with valuable information as to the class of readers

it possesses. Advertisers consider this class of circulation peculiarly desirable, as it goes directly into the homes of the community.

In most places each paper maintains its own force of carriers, but in Chicago, in keeping with that harmony of action which characterizes the newspapers there, all the morning papers are delivered by whatare known as official carriers, who are realy retailers of the paper. These carriers have a standing order with the newspapers for the required number of copies at dealer's rates and in turn retail the papers to the subscribers, hiring the boys to deliver them. So in Chicago there does not exist this marked distinction between the carrier list and the street class.

The main factors in the city circulation of a newspaper are the drivers of the wagons and automobiles which carry the papers to the various dealers about the city. Each Chicago newspaper maintains its own force of horses, autos, and drivers, who report according to schedule, take on their loads of papers and delivery sheets, and make their deliveries to dealers, carriers, or to trains.

The driver is important on account of his work as collector and solicitor, which is commonly included in his duties. The papers delivered to carriers and dealers are paid for in advance and there is ample opportunity for the driver to exercise his powers of salesmanship and to induce the dealer to increase the number of papers next week. Then, as collectors, there is chance for diplomacy, for an un-

diplomatic word might alter very unfavorably the relations between the dealer and that newspaper.

In addition to the drivers, some papers maintain a corps of inspectors, or, as they are called in Chicago, division men. It is the duty of these men to watch the sale of papers in their respective divisions and to determine whether the drivers are doing their work properly. These men must watch the work of the drivers, adjust any complaints, and make certain that their paper is being properly represented on the streets. The best division men are naturally graduates from the ranks of the drivers.

Turning now to the discussion of country circulation, the first feature deserving mention is the relative lack of competition among the newspapers for it. While this class of circulation helps in obtaining advertising of a national character, it adds little to the value of local advertising, so that the rate cannot be raised as much on the basis of increased country circulation as on increased circulation in the city of publication and immediate vicinity.

Country circulation is of two kinds, that among individual subscribers and that among dealers. The former is mailed out, each paper being stamped with the name and address of the subscriber. Sometimes these are wrapped singly, but often they are not, especially where a considerable number go to one postoffice. These are sent in one bundle and the name and address of the subscriber stamped on the paper itself.

The remainder are sent out by express to dealers, who have a standing order for a certain number of papers. These dealers are solicited by traveling agents for the various papers, whose duty it is to stimulate country circulation, adjust grievances and attend to collections from slow payers.

The larger circulation a paper has, the larger percentage of it is likely to be sent outside the city in which it is published. Indeed, the Chicago Tribune circulates only about one-half its Sunday issue in the state of Illinois, and only sixty-one percent of its daily issue. Other papers cater more to the local field, like the Daily News. The smaller papers do not go outside the immediate vicinity in which they are published, except to former residents of the locality who want to keep in touch with their old home.

The methods of getting the foreign circulation distributed have been wonderfully improved since 1880. There are now about seventy trains carrying morning papers out of Chicago each day. For the suburban towns special cars and even special trains are utilized to insure promptness in delivery. Many more and faster trains are available to the publisher than before, and mechanical improvements in his plant enable him to get the papers on earlier trains than formerly.

The number of dealers handling a paper depends on the circulation of that paper. In Illinois there are about one thousand dealers handling the Sunday Tribune and about six hundred and fifty who handle the daily also.

The introduction of rural free delivery has stimu-

lated the country circulation of the larger morning dailies, as now they can be delivered to the subscriber on the day of publication, whereas previously he had to wait until he went to town to get his mail.

The methods of obtaining circulation, both city and country, are varied. Premiums, contests, prizes, gifts, straight soliciting efforts, all with variations adapted to the peculiar conditions of the locality in which they are used, have been tried at one time or another by nearly all the papers in the state. The tendency seems to be, however, in the direction of building up a circulation on the basis of a good paper and not by means of any of these schemes, the effects of which, unless followed up by the publication of a good paper, are temporary. Such circulation building schemes are useful in the case of a newspaper which has just been started and is seeking to obtain a footing in the community, but in the case of older established papers it would seem to be the wisest policy to let the paper sell itself on its own reputation, together with judicious advertising of its merits.

The companies and individuals who make a business of conducting the various circulation promotion schemes have included many adventurous persons with little financial or moral responsibility, who have preyed upon the publishers, but the conditions in this respect are probably better than they have been. In 1914 a new organization was formed called the International Circulation Builders' Association, which aims to uplift the business of promoting circulation by contests,

etc., and make it possible for publishers to be sure they are contracting with a responsible party in putting on a contest.[29]

We have outlined the nature of the organization of the business office of a Chicago daily newspaper. This is probably the most complex form of organization in the publishing industry, and other periodicals but simplifications of it. The country weekly is still the typical newspaper of the state of Illinois, so it may be desirable to allude briefly to this more familiar form of organization.

The business of the average country weekly is conducted in its entirety by the proprietor. He accepts advertisements of all kinds, solicits some from the merchants, carries on correspondence with foreign advertisers and with the advertising agencies, keeps his own books, makes out his bills, collects them in person, and pays such bills for supplies as are due. He frequently keeps a running account at a number of the stores in the town, and periodically balances up the merchant's advertising account with his merchandise account, making it possible to operate with the transfer of a small amount of money.

The circulation of the average country weekly is all sent by mail through the local post office. Most of it is wrapped in single wrappers where it goes outside the vicinity, but the rest of the papers are stamped with the name and address of the subscriber. They are tied into bundles, one bundle for each rural route and for each of the little neighboring towns. There is no circulation through dealers, either

[29] Fourth Estate, Oct. 31, 1914, p.

in the town or in other places, and in most cases there are no carriers employed. Of course, where the town enjoys free city delivery, carriers must be hired for the city circulation, as the papers will not be delivered through the post office.[30] But in most places where free delivery is established, a daily can live. The country weekly publisher has the complete list of his subscribers on file all the time, which we have seen is not true of the city dailies.

Such is the simplest form of business organization. Very often the publisher has sufficient job printing business to admit of his hiring some help. This generally takes the form of a girl who sets the news matter on the paper and helps in the collection of "locals and personals." This leaves the proprietor free to attend to the setting up of the advertisements, job work, and the make-up of the paper. The usual size for the country weekly of today is eight pages, four of which are either ready-print or plate matter, leaving about four pages to be gotten out in the home office. One man can do this unaided if his time is not taken up with job work, so when we find a weekly paper employing more help, it is usually safe to assume that the added employees are made necessary by other work than simply getting out the paper.

The country editor is not usually a good advertising solicitor. He lacks the ability to aid the advertiser in making the advertisement yield results, through better wording, ar-

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[30] In other cities in the county which have free delivery the papers will be delivered by carrier, but not in the city of publication.

rangement, etc. So it has come about that many country merchants feel that their advertising expenditure is in the nature of a subsidy to a home enterprise--the newspaper. And very often this is the truth.

Aside from the tendency to cut rates to secure foreign advertising, the country publisher is usually glad to secure advertising of almost any kind that promises financial returns to him. Quack doctors, fake patent medicines, and other undesirable objects of expenditure find a welcome in the columns of most country papers, whereas from the more independent publications they are excluded.

The matter of foreign advertising is a live issue with most country publishers. The sentiment in most communities is strong for home trade, and the publisher who accepts advertising from merchants in neighboring towns is very apt to incur the enmity of the local dealers. Where the local dealers are well organized this enmity may find expression in a boycott of his paper, forcing him to choose between the home and foreign advertising.

The business methods of the average country publisher are very lax. He keeps a record of subscriptions usually in a blank book of some kind, entering after the name of each subscriber the date to which the subscription is paid, and the date on which the last installment was paid. Previous similar entries are scratched off as the new ones are set down.

The advertising charge accounts are usually kept in

a ledger, the entries being made direct without going through a day book or journal. All cash transactions for advertising, extra copies of the paper, blank stock or job work are usually handled without any record being kept, the proprietor simply pocketing the cash. Rare are the weekly offices where an adequate set of books is kept so that any idea of profits or loss can be obtained. The average country publisher does not know even what proportion of his gross income comes from job work, subscriptions or advertising, and still less does he know the net income from any of these sources. In fact, most country editors cannot tell the gross business transacted in a year, so much of it is unrecorded.

The cost-finding movement inaugurated by the Ben Franklin Clubs and the emphasis being laid upon this feature by the other organizations of publishers is having some effect in securing better business methods, but the results are often discouraging to the promoters. The average country publisher is simply a practical printer, with little or no business experience, except that which he has picked up since starting out for himself. He may have learned the trade thoroughly, and has perhaps learned to write fairly well through a process of assimilation if he has worked on good newspapers while learning his trade, but his business training has ordinarily been nil. Besides, he feels that it is necessary to work every hour of the week in order to make both ends meet, so he cannot look beyond the immediate and pressing duties and see where in the long run it would profit him to spend a part of his time

in keeping closer track of his business. He is often so near the edge that if he were to stop work long enough to do this there might not be any long run for him.

As the business of advertising has become more scientific, we find that business men have attempted to learn something about the product they were getting when they bought space in a newspaper. At first they did this by trying individually to find out about the circulation of the various papers. This was soon seen to be a hopeless task in the cities, so the demand for certainty regarding circulation brought about the formation of the Advertising Audit Association and the Bureau of Verified Circulations. The object of these associations was to investigate the circulation of papers and report to the advertisers who were willing to pay for the information.

The two associations were amalgamated in 1914.[31] The new title was the Advertising Audit Association and Bureau of Verified Circulations. This was changed later in the same year to the Audit Bureau of Circulation.

The Bureau of Verified Circulations was made up of the following organizations:

American Newspaper Publishers' Association

Periodical Publishers' Association

Association of New York Advertising Agents

Federation of Trade Press Associations

Technical Publicity Association

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[31]The Fourth Estate, Jan. 24, 1914, p. 2.

Association of National Advertising Managers

Associated Farm Papers.

The Advertising Audit Association was made up of representatives of the Western Advertising Agents, The Association of American Advertisers, a number of western publishers, including farm papers and a number of large national advertisers.

The new association maintains headquarters at both New York and Chicago.

The association is made up of three classes of members, advertisers, general advertising agents, and publishers. The members of the first two classes receive all reports, bulletins, etc., while the publishers have the privilege of publishing full reports and agree to let their books be audited by the accountants designated by the Bureau.

This movement was among the most important in the history of advertising, and had the effect of stimulating the unorganized movement for guaranteed circulation, so that in the year past there has been removed much of the veil of secrecy which has always surrounded the circulation figures of our newspapers and periodicals.

In carrying on his work, the advertising manager has to deal not only with individual advertisers, and advertising agencies, but with groups of advertisers in the shape of advertising clubs, commercial clubs, merchants' associations, etc., which act more or less in concert when dealing with the newspapers.

The Chicago Advertising Association is one of the

country's oldest and foremost, having been organized in 1903. The constitution was broad enough to admit almost every man whose business classified him as an advertiser.[32]

The Rockford Advertising Association was formed in December, 1910 with five hundred members.[33]

Many of the other smaller cities have organizations among the merchants, which, while not formed primarily to treat with the newspapers, deal with the matter of advertising incidentally.

In 1910 the advertising managers of some of the larger manufacturers formed the National Association of Advertising Managers. The object was to create a larger demand for trademarked goods, and to make sentiment against illegitimate advertising.[34]

The Space Club of Chicago was organized in 1902 with sixteen members, all representatives of trade journals.[35] By 1905 it had enlarged its scope and admitted to membership advertising men who represented advertising that annually aggregated more than $5,000,000. This club did much to eliminate the commission that trade papers formerly had to pay to advertising managers and helped to dignify the work of soliciting

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[32]Printers Ink, December, 1909, p. 90.

[33]Ibid. December, 1910, p. 81.

[34]Ibid. July, 1910, p. 73.

[35]Ibid. May, 1903, p. 58.

advertising.[36]

In 1900 the leading advertising men engaged upon the Chicago newspapers organized the Daily Newspaper Advertising Representatives' Association of Chicago. The objects of the organization were to pass on the financial standing of advertisers and agencies.[37]

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[36] Ibid. March, 1905, p. 50.

[37] The Fourth Estate, October 13, 1900, p. 2.

CHAPTER VII

Organization of Proprietors

Part I. As to Proprietary Interests

So far as we can gather from the data at hand, the newspaper and periodical industry has shared in the general movement toward the corporate form of organization, the reasons being found in conditions making for increased size of plants, as brought out in Chapter III. This has necessitated the employment of more capital and made the corporate form preferable.

The census throws some light on the movement:[1]

	1905		1900	
	No. of estab.	Percent	No. of estab.	Percent
Newspapers and periodicals	1390	100	1259	100
Individ.	775	55.8	766	60.8
Firm	228	16.4	229	18.2
Corp.	344	24.7	260	20.7
Misc.	43	3.1	4	.3

From Ayer's Newspaper Annuals of the dates 1890 and 1914 we can supplement the foregoing table a little.[2]

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[1]Bulletin 52, 1905, p. 16.

[2]The figures from Ayer's show a tendency merely, and cannot be compared with the census figures. The percentage of corporations is higher than the census gives, because Ayer's lists only those publications which are bona fide and carry advertising. Also, in the list of corporations was included each firm, the name of which concluded with "& Co." Some of these might conceivably have been partnerships.

	1890		1914	
	Number	Percentage	Number	Percentage
Individual	700	54.6	729	47.0
Firm	211	16.4	271	17.7
Corporation	370	29.0	551	35.3

Part II. As to Proprietary Inter-relations

Organizations of proprietary interests have usually been formed from one of three motives--to further some political end, to meet employees, or to standardize the industry. Some of the organizations combine two or even all of these functions, so that it is difficult to distinguish them, but a fairly satisfactory grouping can be made on these lines.

Section 1. Political

These are usually of the same type, composed of the editors of party organs within a definite territory. This may be a city, county, congressional district or state.

Examples of this familiar type of organization are:

The Republican Editorial Association of the Eleventh Congressional District of Illinois, organized at Chicago in 1902.[3]

The Eighth Congressional District had a similar organization back in the 'nineties.[4]

There was a State Republican Editorial Association formed about 1890.[5]

These types are found to spring up about every four

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[3]The Fourth Estate, Aug. 9, 1902, p. 14.

[4]The Fourth Estate, Mar. 14, 1895, p. 7.

[5]Ibid.

years, just previous to presidential elections, and to sink out of sight at the conclusion of the campaign.

Another type is that of which the American Weekly Publishers' Association is an example. This organization was formed in 1906 at Chicago with one hundred and eighty members throughout the Middle West, its object being to assist in getting favorable postal legislation from congress. General newspapers were eligible to membership, but most of the charter members appeared to be publishers of class journals.

Of course some of the other organizations have taken active parts in politics, as the American Newspaper Publishers' Association, in its successful campaign for free print paper, but these objects are secondary with them.

Section 2. To Meet Employees

To deal successfully with labor unions having a national organization, it is essential that the employers be similarly organized along national lines. The two great organizations of this character are the American Newspaper Publishers' Association and the United Typothetae and Franklin Clubs of America, the latter being to the job printers what the former is to the newspaper publishers.

The following data regarding the American Newspaper Publishers' Association was compiled by Mr. Henry C. Cary, Secretary of the Chicago Local of the American Newspaper Publishers' Association and very well sets forth the essential facts concerning the organization:

"The American Newspaper Publishers' Association

was founded in 1887, as the result of a call issued by W. H. Brearly of The Detroit Evening News, and the first meeting was held at Rochester, N. Y.

There are now (1915) 355 members, including all of the leading newspapers of the United States and Canada.

It is an Association for the conserving of the business interests of its members; devoting its attention to the composing of difficulties arising between employer and employe; the gathering and distribution of information respecting advertising credits; the observance of all mechanical improvements of value, and the watchful care of all the commercial interests of the craft.

The American Newspaper Publishers' Association was the first organization in the United States to adopt a general system of arbitration to apply to all divisions of the printing trades. As a result there has never been a far-reaching strike or lockout in the newspaper business since the Association was founded.

The Association has made possible a concert of action among newspapers that has created a great force for the uplift of the newspaper publishing business, and its achievements are the concrete results of coöperation.

It has faithfully adhered to the program of its founders and a condition under which publishers were working at cross purposes and in the dark, has been superseded by an exchange of confidences and mutual helpfulness.

The American Newspaper Publishers' Association

has (1915) the following named members in Illinois:

Aurora--The Beacon-News (evening).

Bloomington--The Bulletin (evening and Sunday morning, except Saturday).
The Pantagraph (morning, except Sunday).

Chicago--The American (evening).
The Examiner (morning and Sunday).
The Herald (morning and Sunday).
The Journal (evening).
The Daily News (evening).
The Post (evening).
The Tribune (morning and Sunday).

Danville--The Commercial-News (evening).
The Press Democrat (morning and Sunday, except Monday).

Joliet--The Daily News (evening).

Springfield--Illinois State Journal (morning and Sunday).
Illinois State Register (morning and Sunday).

In May, 1904, the publishers of the larger Chicago newspapers organized what was designated Chicago Local No. 1 of the American Newspaper Publishers' Association. This association still (1915) exists, the only change in its title being the elimination of its numerical designation. Chicago Local A. N. P. A. has for its motives the purposes outlined as those governing the American Newspaper Publishers' Association.

For twenty years previous to 1904 the Chicago publishers had maintained, with more or less success, organizations similar to Chicago Local A. N. P. A."

The A. N. P. A. for thirteen years did not deal with

the unions, but simply maintained a credit bureau.[6]

But in 1898-1900 trouble arose with the unions and in February, 1900, the Association employed a commissioner to deal with the unions.[7] Many members of the Association at this time employed non-union help. As has been explained, arbitration agreements were drawn up, and the system has proved very successful.

"The Publishers' Association has had no strike or lockout in seven years, although scores of scales (of wages) have been changed. Newspaper publishers have recognized that unions are here to stay and have made up their minds to treat with them. The other employers, the Typothetae for example, have looked on unions in the light of the last century and fought them."[8]

Another similar opinion states: "The expansion of the American Newspaper Publishers' Assn. as a material factor in newspaper affairs was coincident with its creation of a labor bureau in 1900. Since then that organization has undertaken to control the recognition of advertising agents, and to give them ratings and to enforce collections."[9]

This attempt to stimulate better coöperation among

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[6]Barnett, The Printers, p. 345.

[7]Ibid. p. 346.

[8]Inland Printer, Vol. 39, p. 371.

[9]The Fourth Estate, March 6, 1909, p. 9. Article by Gerald Pierce of Chicago.

publishers has been very successful. A writer in The Fourth Estate says:[10] "The American Newspaper Publishers' Association is really the key to the success of the American Newspaper in the 20th century. The principle of helping one another has entirely superseded the idea of the newspaper publisher of days gone by of each working for himself and getting the best of his contemporary by foul means, if it could not be accomplished by fair."

The Association also strove for favorable postal legislation and for the admission of wood pulp and print paper free of duty.

As can be seen, the organization is composed of publishers of the larger papers, but its influence has been beneficial in a variety of ways to smaller publishers who did not belong.

The United Typothetae of America was organized at Chicago, October 18-20, 1887.[11] Previous to that time there had been various master printers' organizations throughout the country, with different names and without connections or unity of purpose. A meeting of representatives of those organizations was called, and at that meeting it was decided to bring the organizations together in a national organization under one name and with a definite object.[12]

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[10]April 19, 1913, p. 26.

[11]Barnett, The Printers, p. 335.

[12]The Fourth Estate, Sept. 1, 1898, p. 3.

The organization at first was very loose, although it had as its main object the protection of the members from the demands of the unions.

But in 1904, with the unions threatening a general strike for an eight-hour day, the employers got together and adopted a new constitution, which gave the United Typothetae large powers over about every question of dispute with the unions except wages, which were left to the local Typothetae.[13]

Then in 1905-1906 came the big strike, with results rather favorable to unions, although the Typothetae offered stubborn resistence to the movement.

Since that time, the Typothetae have developed other purposes, as educational, and now lay great stress upon correct methods of shop management and cost finding systems. This latter movement has been especially strong since the union of the United Typothetae with the Ben Franklin Clubs of America in 1913, described later.

The organization as now existing has a board of arbitration, committees on trade matters, credits, legislation, price lists, auditing, apprentices, and a cost commission.[14] While the objects of the organization, as stated in the Constitution and Bylaws as amended in 1914,[15] emphasize the features of coöperation and systems in a business way, the preamble

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[13]Barnett, The Printers, p. 341.

[14]Reverse side of official letter head.

[15]Ibid. pp. 6-8.

contains a hint of the old ideal:[16] "As an organization it asserts and will maintain the right of its members to regulate their own affairs." In the Declaration of Policy, approved by the Executive Committee February 28, 1908,[17] the right of the members is maintained of conducting an "open office", employing whomsoever the member chooses.

At its organization, the United Typothetae of America had a membership of twenty-five in Illinois; in October, 1915, they had two hundred and thirty-six members.[18]

There are quite a number of smaller local organizations, unaffiliated with any national organization, which have as their main object the handling of the labor problem.

Such is the Master Typesetters' Association of Chicago, composed of houses which do machine composition, and the Chicago Employing Printers' Association formed in 1909, all of whose members employ some non-union men.[19]

Section 3. To Standardize the Industry

Editorial Associations and Press Clubs:

The National Editorial Association was formed at New Orleans in February, 1885, its membership being made up of publishers of the smaller papers than are in the American Newspaper Publishers' Association.[20]

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[16] Ibid. p. 5.

[17] Ibid. p. 21.

[18] Letter to the author from Secretary Tyler, October, 1915.

[19] Inland Printer, Vol. 43, p. 589.

[20] The Fourth Estate, June 22, 1912, p. 17.

Its aims and scope have grown with the years until it now appeals to publishers in many ways. At the annual meetings matters of common interest are discussed, papers are read, and opportunity is afforded the publishers to learn what their fellows are doing in various parts of the country. The organization established an organ in the 'eighties, The National Printer-Journalist, which has done a great work in educating its subscribers along business and technical lines, and has also been of assistance to the editor in his work of building up his paper as a news medium.

The Inland Daily Press Association is a strong organization composed of the smaller daily papers in some of the north central states. The members of the Association are papers, not individuals, and no Chicago papers belong. Illinois papers to the number of twenty-six belonged in 1915. One of the objects of the organization has been coöperation in buying their print paper, purchasing in large quantities in order to save money.

The Illinois Press Association is composed of several hundred publishers of the smaller papers of the state. They meet annually to listen to a program connected with trade topics, and to talk over problems of bettering their business. The Association has been able to bring considerable pressure to bear upon the state legislature at various times when the editors acted in harmony.

The membership was about five hundred in 1898,[21] but

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[21] The Fourth Estate, July 28, 1898, p. 6.

more recently the interest has been rather on the decline, owing to various causes. President Sheets, at the annual convention in 1911, said that this was because the editors didn't have railroad passes any more, and partly because the annual convention, held in one of the larger cities, was not so much of a novelty as formerly, as every village now had its theatre and other places of amusement.[22]

The Illinois Daily Newspaper Association was formed in 1906, and is composed of men representing the various daily newspapers in the state outside of Chicago in towns of five thousand or more inhabitants. The Association takes up matters of interest to the trade, emphasis being laid on coöperation and higher prices for their product. In 1912 the membership was forty-five.[23]

The Illinois Woman's Press Association has enjoyed a continued existence since 1885.

A newer organization is the Associated Country Newspaper Publishers' Association, which was launched in June, 1913, at Chicago. Newspaper men from several of the Middle Western states are members. The purpose of the organization is to uplift the home town by encouraging home patronage and home advancement through the home papers. At the first convention the resolutions adopted decried the advance of mail order houses, and pledged the members not to carry their advertising.

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[22]National Printer-Journalist, Vol.29,1911, p.601.

[23]National Printer-Journalist, Vol.30,1912, p.860.

A high standard of all advertising matter is maintained, quack doctors and worthless patent medicine advertising being refused.

There are and have been at various times small press clubs or editorial associations, as the Chicago Press Club, and the numerous county organizations. Publishers in Champaign, Tazewell, Winnebago, Adams, Bureau, and Lake counties have had organizations, and without doubt similar ones have existed in other counties. The Eighth Congressional District had at one time an editorial association, while the Military Tract Press Association holds meetings once or twice a year.

The development of journals, devoted to the interests of certain classes of readers, as trade, religious, etc., has been accompanied by the growth of organizations of their publishers for various objects.

The most active movement for organization seems to have taken place in the ranks of the agricultural and trade press.

Back in 1896 we read of a meeting of the Agricultural Press League of the United States, held in Chicago.[24] A number of agricultural papers published in Illinois were members.

In 1908 the Standard Farm Paper Association was formed, composed chiefly of middle west farm paper publishers.[25] The objects were to standardize column widths, advertising

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[24]The Fourth Estate, April 23, 1896, p. 14.

[25]Printers' Ink, Dec. 1908, p. 10.

rates, relations with advertisers and with .. agencies.

In 1910 a new farm paper organization was formed, called the Associated Farm Papers.[26] Its avowed purpose was to promote, develop, solicit and secure advertising for its members.

In 1911, at its annual meeting in Chicago, the Corn Belt Publishers' Association changed its name to the Agricultural Press Club and broadened its field to include the interests of all the agricultural papers in the country.[27]

And in June, 1914, sixty publishers of agricultural papers, all members of the Audit Bureau of Circulations, met in Chicago and formed a permanent organization called the Agricultural Publishers' Association. The object of the organization is to promote the interests of agricultural advertising along the lines of the work done for magazines by the Quoin Club and for newspapers by the American Newspaper Publishers' Association.

The trade papers of the country are federated in an organization called the Federation of Trade Press Associations, organized in 1905.[28] This is made up of smaller associations like the Chicago Trade Press Association, which is composed of a number of trade papers published in Chicago. This organization preceded the larger one by several years, being organized

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[26]Printer's Ink, Sept. 1910, p. 19.

[27]Printer's Ink, June, 1911, p. 68.

[29]Printer's Ink, Oct., 1909, p. 44.

back in 1891.[30] It has always been a prominent member of the Federation.

The publications devoted to the grocery and allied trades are so numerous that they have formed an independent organization called the Grocery and Allied Trade Press of America. At least one Chicago paper, the Inland Storekeeper, was a member in 1912.[31]

Other class journals organized are the Afro-American, the Catholic, and the medical publications.

The Afro-American press has a national organization called the National Afro-American Press Association, in which the Illinois Afro-American publishers are quite active.

The American Medical Editors' Association contains several Chicago editors of medical journals.

The Catholic Press Association was organized in 1911 on quite an elaborate scale. They planned a news bureau and several other coöperative features.

The publishers of newspapers and periodicals printed in languages other than English have formed a few organizations.

The Norwegian-Danish Press Club Association was formed in 1894, several members from Illinois being members.[32]

In 1907 we find a notice of the eighth annual con-

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[30]The Fourth Estate, March 21, 1895, p. 7.

[31]The Fourth Estate, Feb. 3, 1912, p. 17.

[32]The Fourth Estate, Sept. 8, 1898, p. 3.

vention of the German-American Press Associations of Illinois and the West, which was held in Peoria.[33]

The Polish newspaper publishers of the country met in Chicago early in 1907 and organized a mutual aid and protective association. Two Chicago publishers, M. Durski and J. Albniski, were among the officers chosen.[34]

In the National Printer-Journalist, 27:607, (1909) we read: "There is a boom in press clubs in Chicago. A new one is started nearly every week. The latest is a Jewish press club, organized at the Chicago Hebrew Institute. It is made up of editors and writers on the local Yiddish papers."

A Jewish Newspaper Association was formed in New York in 1911, representing Jewish papers throughout the country. Two of the Chicago papers, the Daily Jewish Courier and the Jewish Record (weekly) were charter members.[35]

In 1912 the German Newspaper Alliance was formed with the aim of developing advertising for the papers belonging.[36]

Mention has already been made of the amalgamation of the Ben Franklin Clubs of America with the United Typothetae in 1913. Previous to that time the Ben Franklin Clubs, since their organization in 1909, had been working for one of the objects desired by the Typothetae, better business methods among the

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[33]The Fourth Estate, Oct. 5, 1907, p. 14.

[34]The Fourth Estate, Feb. 2, 1907, p. 19.

[35]Printer's Ink, March, 1911, p. 37.

[36]The Fourth Estate, April 6, 1912, p. 2.

printers. There had been a movement for local organizations calling themselves Ben Franklin Clubs before 1909, but these had not become united into one organization, although much was accomplished by them in encouraging printers to install cost systems and charge higher prices for their product. A periodical called the Ben Franklin Magazine emphasized this side of the industry and helped create interest in the movement.

Still another influence toward the same end was the Cost Congress movement, which had its rise about the same time. The first Illinois Cost Congress was held at Peoria in May, 1912, although the International Cost Congress had been in existence for four years at that time.[37] These meetings were devoted to discussions of systems of cost finding for different kinds of printing establishments, and of the results obtained by the use of these systems. The tendency was to awaken the printer to the fact that there were many leaks in his business, and that he had been under-charging on many lines of work.

These various organizations have been absorbed by the present United Typothetae and Ben Franklin Clubs of America, which now carries on the work in a more efficient manner than could be done by several separate organizations.

While the Ben Franklin Clubs emphasized the cost finding and prices, and the United Typothetae stressed the labor problem, the joint organization has taken up other lines of work also, so that there is not now the demand for other

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[37]National Printer-Journalist, Vol. 29: 692 (1911).

organizations that there was a few years ago. An attempt is now being made to sectionalize the activities of the organization so that each local organization can, through special committees having definite subjects in charge, by correspondence with other locals, get an idea of their practices. In this way the industry may be standardized to quite an extent through the education of its members.

In 1912 a new type of organization of proprietary interests arose. The chief object seemed to be the launching of a campaign in favor of newspapers as opposed to magazines as an advertising medium.

In December, 1911, a group of evening newspaper publishers organized the Associated Newspapers, a coöperative association to gather and furnish reading matter of a non-sensational character, to exchange editorial and business facilities of every kind, and to carry on a vigorous campaign advocating the use of evening papers of the better class for national advertising. The Chicago Daily News was a member.[38]

The National Newspapers was organized in October, 1912, made up of big daily newspapers in various sections of the country. The purpose of the organization was to secure and promote national advertising for daily newspapers. Any daily newspaper was eligible to membership, and the News, Tribune and Record Herald joined.[39]

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[38]The Fourth Estate, Jan. 6, 1912, p. 8.

[39]The Fourth Estate, Oct. 12, 1912, p. 2.

"After struggling and not very satisfactory existences, ranging from four years to a few weeks, arrangements have been made to consolidate the Daily Newspaper Association, the National Dailies and the Associated Newspapers."[40] The United Newspapers was organized in February to carry on the work formerly carried on by the Associated Newspapers. The new organization was called the Daily Newspaper Association, and its aim is to stimulate newspaper advertising. This Association in turn was affiliated with the big American Newspaper Publishers' Association in 1913 at the annual meeting. It is now a committee of the larger organization in charge of advertising, and is called the Advertising Bureau.

An earlier effort along this line was the Daily Newspaper Club, organized in 1909.[41] This was an elaborate scheme whereby a number of the best papers in all parts of the country were to join, each agreeing to maintain its advertising rate card and to pay a fixed sum annually into the treasury of the Club. A soliciting organization was to be effected, whereby advertising was to be secured for the newspapers belonging to the Club. The principal object was to promote the use of daily papers by the general advertisers.

The whole movement seems to have been incited by the growth of magazine advertising, which alarmed the newspapers The newspapers now profess to believe that the trend of adver-

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[40]The Fourth Estate, March 22, 1913, p. 2.

[41]Printer's Ink, June 1909, p. 29.

tising is toward the daily papers and away from the magazines, partly no doubt on account of the campaign carried on by the associations just mentioned.

The matter of circulation as well as advertising seems to have commanded the attention of newspaper men in sufficient numbers to inspire a large organization, The National Association of Managers of Newspaper Circulation, devoted to standardizing this department of the industry. Formed in the closing years of the last century, the organization now embraces members from all parts of the United States and Canada.[42] The members meet annually to discuss such problems as return privileges, methods to prevent re-selling of papers once sold, subscription prices, circulation promotion schemes, etc. They issue an Official Bulletin filled with valuable information for the members.

One of the earliest organizations of publishers was the Publishers' Commercial Union, founded in 1880, being the first of its kind.[43] It published a book for the members, which contained the names of 22,000 principal advertisers with their financial standing, thus keeping the members informed as to the responsibility of persons applying to them for space. Later a weekly bulletin and a quarterly list were also issued, which helped to supplement the "Advertiser Reporter" as the bigger volume was named.[44] The purpose of the organization, which

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[42]Printer's Ink, Feb., 1910, p. 12.

[43]Printer's Ink, May, 1893, p. 591.

[44]Printer's Ink, Mar., 1904, p. 8.

maintained headquarters at Chicago, was largely to protect its members from unreliable advertisers.

The National Publishers' Bureau was the name of an organization formed at Chicago in May, 1901.[45] A part of the object for which the Association existed was to secure uniform and fair treatment to the members and to secure their rights in and to the United States mail service, coöperating for that purpose as far as possible with the postoffice authorities.

The Gilt Edge Newspapers, organized in 1913, contained several Illinois papers at its formation.[46] The members are mostly smaller papers, the object of the organization being to state plainly their circulation and make quarterly reports with permission to audit and verify its claims by any body of advertisers recognized by them as an organization.

The employers in another branch of the indsutry are organized for protection against employees and for standardizing the industry. The International Photo-Engravers Association was organized back in 1895 or 1896, and has locals in some cities, as the Photo-Engravers Association of Chicago.[47] The Central and Western Photo-Engravers held their second annual conference in 1911.[48]

Conclusions

During the first twenty-five years of our study, or

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[45]The Fourth Estate, May 18, 1901, p. 3.

[46]The Fourth Estate, Jan. 3, 1914, p. 13.

[47]The Fourth Estate, Sept. 7, 1899, p. 3.

[48]National Printer-Journalist, Vol. 29, p. 210.

until about 1905, the organization movement was characterized by the inception of many temporary organizations, which sprang up to meet some particular demand, real or fancied, and shortly sank into oblivion. These sporadic movements serve to show that some printers felt the need of a better organization of the industry, but the old, individualistic ideal still held possession of the majority of them.

Such of these early movements as were not temporary, were directed at objects different from those sought by the later organizations. For example, the United Typothetae and the American Newspaper Publishers' Association concentrated attention for years upon the problem of dealing with the labor unions, which were constantly growing in power. The two organizations were composed of the larger employers of labor, who had this problem to face, whereas the unions had not invaded the smaller places to disturb the small print-shop proprietor.

These proprietors found outlet for their organization impulses in the formation of associations with other aims, as the National Editorial Association. Many of these organizations were narrow in scope and temporary, too, but they accomplished good and helped to prepare the way for the more efficient national organizations which followed. The objects of many of these associations were indefinite, the members meeting in annual convention to talk over general matters, but as a rule nothing definitely helpful resulted. Some knowledge

of trade practices in other places was disseminated, but it was unsystematic and somewhat haphazard.

Then about 1906 the employers realized more strongly than ever before that they were practically at the mercy of the printing trade unions and that the old scheme of uniting to fight the unions had failed. The only thing remaining except financial failure was to pass on the added expense involved for wages and compel the customer to pay it in higher prices for subscriptions, advertising or other printed matter.

So the Cost Congress and Ben Franklin Club movement gained rapid momentum, resulting in an organization of the industry along lines that had previously been neglected. And in this connection it may be said that the result of the cost finding movement has not always been simply higher prices to the customer, but it has often given rise to a better knowledge of conditions of production which has enabled the publisher to make a larger profit at the same price, merely by a more efficient system of manufacture.

Along with this movement for better business methods in the plant, has come a demand for better business methods in the disposal of the product.

Methods of selling advertising space were overhauled and found obsolete, in that they enabled advertisers to club together and then deal individually with the publishers, much to the latter's disadvantage. Fraudulent advertising schemes were made known to other publishers and this evil greatly

lessened. The members of the publishers' organizations have, by unity of action, made possible a general increase in advertising rates, which has been of real benefit to them.

The circulation managers have gotten together and standardized this part of the industry, so that fake schemes of boosting circulation, once operated widely at the expense of the publishers, have been lessened. The publishers have also learned to act in agreement regarding many other of the circulation practices.

Finally, throughout the entire period, there has been a growing tendency toward the concentration of the various lines of endeavor into a few strong organizations of national character and wide scope of purposes. These big organizations fulfill the objects of the many little ones, with a saving of much duplication of effort. The result has been a growing spirit of coöperation on the part of the publishers which has had a stimulating effect upon all phases of the industry.

CHAPTER VIII

Organizations of Employees.

Organizations among the employees have taken one of two forms: those designed to afford strength in treating with the employers, and those for social or other purposes. The first class are commonly known as unions, and the workers in every sub-division of the printing trade are so organized.[1]

The International Typographical Union

Although this is one of the oldest trade unions in the United States, in 1880 there were only five subordinate unions in Illinois, with a total membership of 801. Peoria, Quincy and Springfield, were the only cities in the state having locals, the other two being in Chicago and embracing 679 of the 801 members.

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1 The unions have gradually developed their aims along with the satisfaction of their original purpose, but an extended history of these movements is not demanded here. Several writers have treated the subject excellently. We are concerned primarily with a statement of their number, and especially with that of the International Typographical Union, the only one which touches to any extent the printing industry outside of Chicago.

By 1882 Joliet printers had organized a local, Decatur following in 1883 and Bloomington in 1884. A system of state deputies had been created in 1883, but no money had been provided for their expenses in the act creating the office.[2] So for four years no locals were formed, although those in existence grew steadily in membership. In 1887 three new locals were formed.

The original aim of the union was to include all the members of the craft, in whatever branch they worked, but this was not accomplished, for the workers in the other lines, as pressmen, stereotypers, etc., withdrew and formed independent unions as they became sufficiently numerous.

Thus at one time the International Typographical Union embraced the pressmen, stereotypers and electrotypers, press feeders, type founders, proof readers, etc. Some of these were organized as branches of the International Typographical Union.

The number and membership of the local typographical unions cannot be ascertained exactly from 1892 to 1901, but we know that these were hard years for the organization, due in part to the introduction of the linotype machine. Union members were

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2 I. T. U., Proceedings of the 31st Annual Session, p. 36.

unemployed and unable to keep up their dues, while others thought that an organization too weak to prevent the terrible state of affairs existing at the time was not worthy of their support.

Several new charters were granted to local unions during this period, while quite a number were surrendered or suspended. Those contunuing in existence were in many cases depleted in numbers.

Toward the end of the 'nineties things began to look brighter, so that the membership had almost reached the mark of nine years previous. The reports of the district organizers covering Illinois for this period contain little of special interest. They are taken up in large measure with accounts of attempts to organize new locals, with varying success, and with the efforts of the organizers to adjust wage scales in towns where locals existed.

The southern part of the state was not yet unionized, as is indicated by a quotation from the report of the district organizer in 1898.[3] "On January 10, 1897, I undertook an organizing tour through Southern Illinois and Kentucky. I found Southern Illinois a barren waste so far as unionism is concerned, and had to pass it up."

Another cause of weakness in the union was the secession of the pressmen and press feeders, although their loss was partly compensated for by the organization of the mailers of Chicago. But by 1901 the trade seems to have adjusted itself to the advent of the machine, and the union entered upon an era of

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3 I. T. U. Proceedings, 1898, p. 52.

rapid expansion.[4] Twelve new locals were added in 1902 and three more in 1903, while twelve, organized in 1904, brought the total number up to 54, the largest number in the history of the state, as since that time the number has remained practically stationary, varying from 48 in 1907 to 53 in 1914.

But the total membership continued to grow steadily, despite the loss of the stereotypers and electrotypers in 1901, the newspaper writers in 1904, and the type-founders in 1905. So for the last ten years the mailers' union has been the only one not enjoying an independent existence. The German-American printers of Chicago are under the jurisdiction of the International Typographical Union, although maintaining a separate local.

In the early years of the present century the newspaper writers attempted to organize, affiliating themselves with the union, but for some reason the movement did not spread, although there was a considerable agitation in favor of it. Probably the fact that no apprenticeship period was required had a bearing. The workers in the editorial rooms are somewhat more closely allied with the employers, also, and tend to feel that they are not so much the underlings, but more a part of the entrepreneural factor in the establishment. The line between the office and the mechanical department was too sharply drawn.

The big 8-hour strike in 1906 imposed a check on the growth of the union, being the only industrial dispute which has ever caused a decrease in the number of members.[5] The industrial depression of 1907 also probably had an influence in this matter.

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4 Abraham Bisno of Chicago, testifying before the United States Industrial Commission, stated, "The printing trades are the best organized in the city." Vol. VIII, p. 49.

5 Barnett, The Printers, p. 15.

Membership of International Typographical Union[6]

Name of subordinate union	Year and Number of Members														
	1880	1881	1882	1883	1884	1885	1886	1887	1888	1891	1892	1901	1905	1910	1915
Chicago	613	1000[7]	813	948	1044	1128	1219	1337	1330	1050	2073	1837	3015	3545	4469
Peoria	36	58	49	54	55	58	69	78	76	75	82	95	104	108	125
Quincy	38	36	40	44	50	48	52	55	53	63	60	58	63	58	67
Springfield	58	75	65	84	42	38	48	70	60	58	74	112	118	132	147
Chicago Pressmen	66	60	68	70	72	73	80	96	98	115	130				
Joliet				19	17	18	19	14		16	23	40	67	73	80
Decatur				18	16	17	21	24	17	28	34	36	46	57	58
Bloomington					30	39	36	36	37	59	57	53	50	53	63
Town of Lake								25	32	30					
Twin-City (Moline and Rock Island)								21	21	19			129		
Chicago Scandinavian								38							
Danville									16	16	11	40	48	41	50
Cairo										18	16		22	21	22
Rockford										16	37	24	35	43	67
Ottawa										21		20	18	17	23
Chicago Norwegian-Danish										34	33	37	25	22	19
Galesburg										20	25	40	33	32	38
Aurora										15	17	21	55	41	40
Chicago Stereotypers and Electrotypers										111	147	76			
Quincy Pressmen										8	8				
Champaign											15				
Alton											18	22	21	24	27
Chicago Press Feeders											107				
Chicago Type Founders											90	116	65		
Belleville												17	15	13	24
Kewanee												17	12	11	13
Elgin												26	30	31	42
Waukegan												15	17	22	21
Lincoln												9	13	11	17
Canton												14	13	10	17
Jacksonville												11	13	14	16
Chicago German-American												103	108	93	102
Springfield Stereotypers and Electrotypers												7			
Chicago Mailers												106	191	178	206
Murphysboro													15	8	10
Sterling													16	16	19
Streator													19	25	27
Edwardsville													18	12	18
Litchfield													11	31	26
Taylorville													11	9	11
Pontiac													15	14	18
Carlinsville													14	11	10
Mt. Vernon															11
Clinton													11		
Marion													10	11	10
Mattoon													20	26	18
Charleston													9	8	8
Pekin													18	15	11
Tri-City (Moline, Rock Island, Davenport)														137	167
Chicago Swedish													42	36	43
LaSalle-Peru													22	19	29
Centralia													12	9	10
Chicago Polish													35	33	
Lewistown													7		
Harrisburg													10	12	16
Freeport													36	27	34
Chicago Bohemian													73	58	80
Mascoutah													12	15	17
Champaign and Urbana													37	30	46
Morris													10		10
Herrin													8	11	25
Pana														9	8
Mt. Carmel															10
Kankakee															23
Mt. Morris															22
Total Membership	801	1219[7]	1035	1337	1386	1418	1544	1794	1780	1773	3050	3932	4826	5311	6480
Number of Unions	5	5	6	7	8	8	8	11	10	20	20	26	52	49	52

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[6] Taken from reports of the Secretary, printed in the Proceedings of the International Typographical Union in the years mentioned.

[7] Exaggerated probably.

The following supplementary table shows the number of locals and total membership of the union for the years indicated:

Year	Number of Unions	Total membership
1902	38	3414
1903	41	4227
1904	54	4637
1906	53	4816
1907	48	4930
1908	50	4586
1909	50	4921
1911	52	5645
1912	51	5896
1914	53	6400

During the early period of our study a few printers still retained their membership in the Knights of Labor, although by 1886 the list of assemblies of that organization contains no name of a typographical assembly.[8]

Moreover, the struggle between the Typographical Union and the Knights had not entirely subsided, as we read in 1886,[9] "Trade unions of an intellectual character, like the Typographical Union, with its various branch trades of electrotypers, engravers, lithographers, stereotypers, and perhaps pressmen, can, it is true, maintain a union, but for how long? Already type-setting machines are invented, and soon the trade

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8 Knights of Labor Journal, December 18, 1886, p. 12.

9 Ibid, p. 1.

will be wiped out."

How far from the truth this prophecy really was has been seen.

The International Typographical Union is the only one of the printing trades unions which has attained any considerable membership outside of Chicago, the others being more highly specialized and confined to the large establishments.

The International Printing Pressmen and Assistants' Union of North America was organized in 1889. As we have seen, most of the Illinois pressmen went over to the new organization, the change taking place in 1894.[10] At that time the pressmen had locals only in Chicago and Quincy.

The following indicates the present status of the organization in the state:

The International Printing Pressmen and Assistants' Union of North America, in January, 1916, had local unions in the following places:[11]

Pressmen

Chicago	Freeport	Galesburg
Springfield	Joliet	Quincy
Kankakee	Belleville	Rockford
Peoria	Mt. Morris	Danville
Bloomington	Elgin	
Rock Island	Decatur	

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10 Typographical Journal, Nov. 1, 1894, p. 11

11 The American Pressman, January, 1916, pp. 75-78.

Job Pressmen none.

Job Press Feeders none.

Web Pressmen

Chicago

Printers' Rollers Makers

Chicago

Feeders and Assistants

Springfield Quincy Chicago

The Lithographers' International Protective and Beneficial Association of the United States and Canada was organized in 1887.[12] Its objects were at first purely business -- to deal with employers, but they have developed other features. There are but a few lithographers in Illinois outside of Chicago, where the local contained 200 members in 1911. There are also locals at Peoria and Bloomington.

The International Stereotypers' and Electrotypers' Union of North America withdrew from the International Typographical Union in 1901, and has maintained an independent organization ever since.[13] They have gradually widened the breach between them until now they are very independent, even having a woman's auxiliary.[14]

These workers are found only in the larger cities,

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12 Journal of Political Economy, Vol. 19, p. 866.

13 Tracy, History of Typographical Union.

14 Inland Printer, 41:877, (1908).

the electrotypers having, in March, 1916, a union only in Chicago, while the stereotypers were organized only in Chicago, Peoria, and Springfield.[15] An overwhelming majority of the members in Illinois are located in Chicago.

The International Photo Engravers' Union was organized in 1900.[16]

The various unions in the printing trades are affiliated in an organization called the International Allied Printing Trades Association, and a board of governors, composed of officers from each union, meets annually or oftener to formulate policies and discuss matters pertaining to the trade.

The unions connected with this association are the International Brotherhood of Bookbinders, International Stereotypers and Electrotypers Union, International Photo-Engravers Union, International Printing Pressmen and Assistants Union, and the International Typographical Union.

In some of the larger cities the members of these allied trades are also loosely joined in trade councils.

Other Organizations of Employees.

Besides the labor unions, there are other organizations of employees in various branches of the industry. These have not had as their object the collective bargaining feature of the unions, nor have they attempted so broad a program

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15 The International Stereotypers and Electrotypers Union Journal, March, 1916, pp. 51-52.

16 Inland Printer, 1909, p. 90.

of action . Frequently they appear more social than economic in their aims.

Among them may be mentioned the following:

The Old-Time Printers' Association of Chicago, formed in 1885, and composed of persons engaged in various branches of the printing and publishing industry, as employers or employees, for twenty-five years or more in Chicago.[17]

The Turf-Writers' Association of America was organized in 1900, several Chicago sport writers being charter members. The members were reporters, leading writers upon turf affairs.[18]

The Press Artists' Association of Chicago is composed exclusively of artists employed on the local daily papers.[19]

"The humorists, poets, and philosophers of the daily press have been organized for social and fraternal purposes and will hold their first meeting for permanent organization in May."[20] There were ten members from Chicago.

The Tri-City Newswriters' Association was organized in 1905 in Moline, Illinois. Its purposes are social enjoyment and mutual help.[21]

The newspaper correspondents of Southern Illinois met at Litchfield in 1909 and organized the Southern Illinois

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17 The Fourth Estate, Sept. 19, 1914, p. 33.

18 Ibid, Aug. 3, 1903, p. 4.

19 Ibid, Dec. 30, 1902, p. 6.

20 Ibid, Feb. 7, 1903, p. 6.

21 Ibid, Nov. 11, 1905, p. 14.

Newspaper Correspondents' Association.[22]

In 1909 we read of a Chicago Society of Proof-Readers.[23]

In March, 1911, the Chicago Monotype Club was organized, comprising nearly 80% of the union operators and castermen of the city.[24] It is the only club of its kind in the country, and while it was organized for the purpose of social entertainment, it has since become a factor in the promotion of better working conditions and the welfare of its members.

In July, 1911, was organized a new association, made up of superintendents or governors of Chicago printing offices, under the name of the Printing Crafts Association.[25]

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22 The Fourth Estate, September 18, 1909, p. 12.

23 Inland Printer, 1909, p. 841.

24 Ibid, Vol. 40, p. 918, (1911).

25 National Printer-Journalist, Vol. 29, p. 869.

CHAPTER IX.

Labor Problems Connected with Organization.

Having discussed the organization, both of the employers and the employees, we take up in the present chapter some of the problems of organization growing out of the conflicting interests of employers and employees.

The topics of wages, hours and conditions of labor, strikes and lockouts, woman and child labor, and the problem of securing a satisfactory labor supply are taken up in order.

Wages.

Any attempt to deal statistically with the subject of comparative wages is dangerous, owing to different conditions in different places and at different times.

Bearing in mind the necessary limitations of such a treatment, we can draw, out of the mass of material on the subject, certain general, although fairly familiar, conclusions. Other possible conclusions are not clearly susceptible of proof and are not dealt with here.

The first of these conclusions is that money wages in the industry have risen since 1880. The following table compiled from the United States Census indicates this clearly:

Year	No. of Wage-earners	Total Wages	Average Wages
1880	6583[1]	$2,736,717[1]	$415.72
1890	6718[1]	3,712,616[1]	553.82
1900	7478[2]	3,704,341[2]	495.36
1905	7205[2]	4,789,288[2]	664.71
1910[3]	8289		

A second source of information is found in the elaborate compilations, made by the secretary of the International Typographical Union, of the wage scales in effect in cities where locals of the union are established.[4] These reports are too voluminous to be even summarized here, but a few illustrations will suffice to show the trend.[5]

Practically every issue of the Typographical Journal contains reports of new wage scales, in nearly every case reporting an advance. A sample of these reports will illustrate the point: "Elgin, Illinois, by agreement made with the employing printers, covering a period of two years, from June 1, the piece scale on

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[1]12th Census, Vol. IX. p. 1056.

[2]United States Census Bulletin 52. p. 7. (1905)

[3]13th Census, Vol. X, p. 771. In the 13th census the figures for newspapers and periodicals are not separated from the other branches of the printing and publishing industry.

[4]These reports are embodied in the Proceedings of the International Typographical Union's Conventions for the following years: 1880; 1882; 1883;. Other reports are in the Typographical Journal Vol. 12 pp. 128-137 (1898); Vol. 18, June 1, 1901; Jan. 1904, pp. 210-260. The report of March, 1914, was in pamphlet form and was furnished the author by secretary Hays.

[5]cf. table I at end of section on wages.

machines is eliminated and wages advanced $1 and $2 a week."[6] This same issue contains notices of advances obtained in Carlinville Bloomington, Quincy, Ottawa, Lincoln, Belleville, Galesburg, and Clinton.

The Bureau of Labor Statistics furnishes us with some figures, which, while based upon insufficient data, show the same tendency toward higher wages.[7] These figures show a rise from 55¢ to 62¢ per hour for day work, and from 60¢ to 67¢ for night work in Chicago for both hand and machine men.

The second point is that higher wages are paid for night work than for day work. This is true of practically every industry, and the newspaper and periodical industry offers no exception. The difference in wages is usually from one to three dollars a week or from three to five cents per thousand ems for composition. Some unions, such as the Bohemian branch of the International Typographical Union in Chicago, make no distinction in their scales, although it is probable that the actual wages paid are not the same for day and night work. At Elgin the weekly scale is the same, but the piece scale for compositors shows a difference of five cents per thousand ems. Several other places exhibit the same phenomenon.

The third conclusion we have reached is that wages are higher in the larger places than in the smaller ones. A part of this general tendency is explained by the fact that the unions are usually organized in the larger places, while the smaller places

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[6] Supplement to August, 1914 issue of Typographical Journal p. 8.

[7] Bulletin 131.

are not organized. But even where they are both organized, we can discern a marked difference. For example, the highest wages in the state are paid in Chicago, while the minimum of $14 per week is paid in the smaller places, the largest local having the $14 minimum being the one located at LaSalle-Peru, where the combined population is about 30,000.

In the Report of the State Bureau of Labor Statistics for 1882 we read:[8] "It is usual for printers to say that a situation in a country town is worth about $12 or $13." In the same Report we find:[9] "The average earnings of Chicago printers are about $792 per annum. In Springfield they are $613."

Doubtless the higher cost of living in the cities is an influence making for this situation, but there is at least one other reason. In the smaller places the work is easier; there is not the necessity for maintaining the swift pace essential to the prompt production of a big daily. The country printer can take his time about his duties, and it is worth something not to be hurried. Also, the demand for speed in the metropolitan plants has attracted to them the "swifts" or printers who can meet the requirements in this line, much as the major leagues have attracted the baseball players of the highest class. The city daily cannot be produced more quickly simply by using more men, for there is a friction of organization and expensive equipment cannot be too greatly expanded. Hence, the demand is for speed on the part of the individuals as an essential factor in aggregate speed.

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[9]Page 327

In the fourth place, wages are usually higher in places where a local of the union exists than in places where the printers are unorganized. While the raising of the union scale has exercised an undoubted influence upon wages in unorganized localities, there remains a difference. One proof of this is found in the promptness with which wages are raised in a town after the union has been established. In Kankakee, for example, the wage was raised from a maximum of $12 per week to a minimum of $16, all in the space of four years, from 1910, the date when the local was organized, to 1914.

In an article by one of the District Organizers for the International Typographical Union this point is brought out:[10] "Canton, Illinois, printers get from $5 to $7 per week for ten hours a day. Peoria printers get $16.50 per week for ten hours a day. Canton is unorganized; Peoria is organized. Kankakee (unorganized) printers get from $3 to $6.50 per week for from 10 to 16 hours. Chicago (organized) printers get $18 per week with a ten-hour day."

While these comparisions are scarcely fair, the tendency is evident.

Regarding a situation in Cairo we read:[11] "Cairo was the next city visited. Here I found working men in a worse condition than were the slaves during the late war. Last July all unions in Cairo went on strike in sympathy with the American Railway Union.

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[10] P. J. Maas. Article entitled "Organize Your Country Cousins." In Typographical Journal, Jan. 15, 1896, p. 48.

[11] Typographical Journal, April 1, 1896. p. 252. Letter from the District Organizer.

This sympathy cost the carpenters, painters, bricklayers, printers and all other unions, their organizations. Before the strike, these crafts received from $2.50 to $3.50 per day. Now they would work for $1 per day if they could get it." In the 1904 Report on Wage Scales of the International Typographical Union, Cairo was again organized, and had a minimum wage of $11 per week of 54 hours. In 1914 the wage was $16 for a week of 48 hours. Evidence that unions have raised money wages need not be multiplied.

The fifth conclusion we arrive at is that the laborers tend to become divided into certain well-defined classes, each with its special wage. The International Typographical Union recognizes six classes: hand compositors, machine operators, foremen, proof-readers, floormen and admen, and machine tenders. The foremen receive the highest wage, a few dollars a week more than the admen. The machine operators get more than the hand men and about the same as floormen and admen. Proofreaders are considered about on a par with hand compositors while the machine tender sometimes draws higher and sometimes lower wages than the operator. The comparative scale depends quite largely upon local conditions.

The members of the pressmen's union are divided into web-pressmen, platen pressmen, cylinder pressmen, and press-feeders. The stereotypers are likewise split into three or four groups.

General conclusion number six is that wages of women and children are usually lower than those paid men for the same work. The reasons for this are set forth in another section of this chapter, but the proof of the statement follows:

In 1890 786 women averaged $355.25 per year.[12]

In 1900 972 women averaged $342.56 per year.[13]

In 1905 1195 women averaged $331.12 per year.[14]

The above figures are for the state as a whole. In Chicago, in 1900, 309 women earned an average of $474.81 per year.[15]

In the 1892 Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics we read:[16] "Quite a number of women belong to the Typographical Union, and these are paid, of course, the same rates that men receive for the same work, but the majority of women who are compositors are employed in non-union offices and accept from 5 to 10¢ less per 1000 ems than the union scale, which is 40¢ per 1000 ems for day work and 46¢ for night, or morning newspaper work."

Any data on the salaries received by women journalists are difficult to secure, as such wages differ more widely than those paid workers in the mechanical department. We occasionally hear of some very high salaries paid women editors on the Chicago papers, while at the other extreme may be found girls gathering local items for weekly papers at a weekly stipend of $3 or even less. Perhaps $50 a month is a fair average for the average woman reporter on a large daily,[17] while many smaller daily papers can hire competent girls for less.

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[12] Eleventh Census, Vol. VI, p. 278.

[13] Twelfth Census, Vol.VIII, pp. 176-177.

[14] Bulletin 52 of 12th Census. (1905)

[15] Twelfth Census, Vol. VIII, p. 185.

[16] Page 105.

[17] Vocations Open to College Women, Bulletin of the University of Minnesota, Extra Series No. 1, p. 22.

The Census of 1890 divided the editors, sub-editors and reporters by sexes, and we find a difference in salaries as follows:[18]

Males over 16.			Females over 15.		
NO.	Wages	Ave. Wages	NO.	Wages	Ave. Wages
922	$964,914	$1046.54	35	$19,731	$563.74

As to the wages of children the data are meagre indeed.

The census for 1890 says that 572 children received an average wage of $105.16.[19]

The 1900 census says that 435 children received an average wage of $123.33.[20]

In 1905 129 children earned an average wage of $153.85.[21]

Our seventh conclusion is that the unions have successfully contended for a time scale instead of a piece wage, believing that the latter tends to overwork the printer and cause him to wear himself out at an earlier age than he should. The opposition to the piece wage system arose first in the book-rooms about 1880, chiefly because the compositors there were irregularly employed. The transition to time work in the newspaper offices dates from the introduction of the Linotype..... A time scale was considered preferable simply on account of the newness of the work and the consequent difficulty of estimating the average output to be expected. Besides, it was deemed injurious, as previously

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[18] Eleventh Census, Part III of Manufacturing Industries, p 678.

[19] Eleventh Census, Vol. VI. p. 278.

[20] Twelfth Census, Vol. VIII, pp. 176-177.

[21] Twelfth Census, Bulletin 52.

mentioned, to work too fast. And lastly, the speeding up of the operators throws some of them out of a job.[22] Barnett estimates that nine-tenths of the members of the International Typographical Union are time workers.[23]

Of the fifty-one locals in Illinois in 1914, every one reported a time wage in their scales. The influence on wages of the introduction of the Linotype was too great to escape mention here. For several years in the early 'nineties, printers' trade journals contained much matter relating to the Linotype and its disastrous effects upon the trade. The contributions vary greatly in tone, some demanding that the machines be smashed, while saner minds counseled submission to the hand of progress and pointed out that the depression was only temporary.

A Chicago contributor to the Typographical Journal writes in 1895:[24] "Hundreds upon hundreds of news compositors have been thrown out of employment here within the last month, and more are to follow."

The same spring there was much talk of establishing some new papers in Chicago, and the regular correspondent to the Typographical Journal wrote:[25] "This may seem to make a good prospect for printers, but the town is full of them, all waiting."

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[22] Barnett, The Printers pp. 131-132.

[23] Ibid. p. 133.

[24] March 15, 1895, p 1.

[25] May 1, 1895, p. 3.

As late as 1896 the depression was still severely felt. The organizer for the International Typographical Union for the district embracing Illinois wrote in the issue of January 1: "The proper thing to do at this season of the year would be to wish the readers of the Typographical Journal a happy new year. To do that would be to mock them. Few of us are and cam be happy with our 'iron colleague', the type-setting device, supplanting us by the score."

In the next issue[26] Mr. Alexander Spencer of Chicago writes: "How to provide for the unemployed is a leading question with the typographical unions of today. By way of parenthesis it may be remarked that many book and job offices in Chicago will not have type-setting machines very soon because it would not pay them, even if it is reported that orders for seventy more are yet unfilled. While any number of men can be kept standing around at beck and call without compensation for lost time, they are cheaper than machinery."

That the more intelligent of the printers realized the true significance of the change is indicated by an editorial appearing in the Typographical Journal at a time when the feeling against the Linotype was very bitter.[27] The editor said: "As the cost of producing newspapers is decreased, the advertising rates will come down, more advertising will be done and more compositors will be wanted. It takes time to re-adjust conditions altered by the use of machinery, but ultimately they will be as favorable as ever for the compositor."

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[26]Jan. 15, 1896, p. 45. [27]June 1, 1895, p. 6.

This far-sighted attitude has been maintained, as is shown by an editorial of more recent date concerning the Intertype:[28] "More than twenty years ago, when type-setting machines, chiefly the Linotype, first obtained a strong foothold in composing rooms throughout this country, some of us thought they would reduce composing room forces to a negligible quantity and practically wreck the union. But we were mistaken. They increased the size of newspapers, made cheaper printing possible, and created an unprecedented demand for book and job work. Today we are again facing a minor change, this time the advent of cheaper composing room machinery which will almost surely broaden an already wide field and increase the demand for operators, though its effect may not be immediately apparent."

The situation is described in the following language by President S. B. Donnelly of the International Typographical Union in his testimony before the Industrial Commission:[29] "For three years the printers suffered, especially the journeyman. The machine did the work of four men, three being displaced. After five years the trade has about adjusted itself,"

From 1892 to 1896 the local typographical unions spent $500,000 for the support of members displaced by the machine. These were mostly the older men who either haunted the print shops and sought temporary places as "subs," or journeyed to the smaller places where the machines had not been introduced. This caused a surplus of labor and forced the wages in unorganized places to a

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[28] Typographical Journal, March, 1913, pp. 283-4.

[29] Vol. VIII, p. 276.

very low point.

It was not necessary that the machine should be introduced into a place before wages were lowered, the simple fear of its coming being sufficient in many cases. The organizer for the district embracing Illinois reported in 1900 as follows: "On October 1, 1999, I was ordered to Kewanee, Illinois, where the week scale of $11 had been reduced to $6.50, for the purpose, as explained by some of the members, of keeping out machines."

As to the salaries received in the other departments of newspapers, W. H. Field, Business Manager of the Chicago Tribune, says:[30] "Young men of today are starting in the newspaper advertising business at a minimum salary of from $10 to $15 a week, and it is not unusual to find advertising managers or special representatives of single newspapers who are paid as much as $15,000 to $20,000 a year."

For executive ability a high price is paid. Mr. Scott, publisher of the Chicago Times-Herald in 1895, is said to have been offered $100,000 a year in 1893 by Joseph Pulitzer to take charge of the New York World.[31] When McCutcheon went from the Record-Herald to the Tribune his new salary was variously estimated at from $12,000 to $20,000 a year.

Given offers some generalities regarding the salaries of journalists.[32]

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[30] Address on "Business Management of a Newspaper," delivered before the students in the course in journalism at Notre Dame University, March 12, 1913.

[31] The Fourth Estate April 18, 1895, p. 2.

[32] Given. Making a Newspaper, p. 278.

"In Chicago reporters get from $600 to $2500; copy readers from $1200 to $2000; editorial writers from $2000 to $5000; and city editors from $2000 to $5000. For managing editors and editors-in-chief the maximum is about $10,000."

The following facts regarding the wage scales of the stereotypers and electrotypers serve to illustrate a number of the points brought out in the foregoing pages, and are therefore placed at the end of the section. These crafts are well organized and negotiate contracts with the employers in the same manner as does the International Typographical Union.

For example, the following scale was agreed to January 1, 1913, between the union and the Electrotypers' Association of Chicago: Foremen, from Jan. 1 to Dec. 31, 1913, $30 per week; Jan. 1, 1914 to Dec. 31, 1915, $33; from Jan. 1, 1916 to Dec. 31, 1916, $35. Moulders, from Jan. 1, 1913 to Dec. 31, 1913, $26; from Jan. 1, 1914 to Dec. 31, 1916, $27. Finishers, from Jan. 1, 1913, to Dec. 31, 1913, $23.50; Jan. 1, 1914, to Dec. 31, 1916, $25. Branchmen, from Jan. 1, 1913 to Dec. 31, 1913, $19.50; Jan. 1, 1914, to Dec. 31, 1916, $21. This is all for a forty-eight hour week, and of course is only the minimum wage. The old scale was foremen, $30; molders, $25; finishers, $22.50; branchmen, $18.[34]

The stereotypers negotiated a new scale in Chicago Jan. 1, 1914, calling for $32.50 for foremen and $25 for journeymen.[35]

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[34] International Stereotypers and Electrotypers Union Journal, Feb. 1913, p. 17.

[35] International Stereotypers and Electrotypers Union Journal, Jan. 1914.

At Springfield the scale is lower, the present scale being fixed in 1913 and still in effect. The stereotypers receive a minimum of $22 per week, and journeymen get a minimum of $3, 33 1/3 cents per hour, these figures being for day work. Those employed on morning papers get $23 and $3.50 for the same length of time.[36]

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[36] International Stereotypers and Electrotypers Union Journal, Sep. 1913, p. 15.

Table I

Year	City	Cents per 1000 ems.		Wage per week	
		A. M.	P. M	A. M.	P. M.
1880	Quincy	30		$13-18[33]	
1882	Quincy	30-35	28-33	14	
1898	Quincy	33 1/3	30	15	
1901	Quincy	33 1/3	30		
1904	Quincy	33 1/3	33 1/3	18	
1914	Quincy			23	
1882	Chicago	40	37		
1883	Chicago	40	37		
1898	Chicago	45	40	$25	$24
1901	Chicago	45	40	25	24
1904	Chicago			27	25
1914	Chicago			31	29
1882	Peoria	30-33	30		
1883	Peoria	33	30	15	15
1898	Peoria	38	35	19.50-20	17-18
1883	Springfield	33 1/3	30	16	
1898	Springfield	35	32	17	15
1901	Springfield	35	32	17	16
1904	Springfield			18	17
1914	Springfield			21	20

[33] Same week scale for morning and afternoon papers.

Hours.

Regarding the hours of labor in the newspaper and periodical publishing industry the outstanding fact is the shortening of the working day since 1880. At the beginning of the period of our study, printers commonly worked eleven or twelve hours a day, no exception being made in the case of night workers.

In 1881, for the first time in the history of the International Typographical Union, the shortening of the working day was urged on the basis that a reduction in the working hours would increase wages by decreasing the available supply of labor.[37]

The year 1886 marks the beginning of the effective movement among the printers for a reduction of hours.[38] By 1893 the usual day in union shops was ten hours, and the International Typographical Union took a referendum vote on the proposition to reduce it to nine hours. This proposition was lost in the country as a whole by a vote of 7927 for and 6444 against, a three-fourths vote being necessary for its adoption.[39] In Illinois the vote stood 736 for and 597 against. This was in 1893 when every printer who had a job wanted to hang on to it. Mr. Tracy, in his History of the Typographical Union, says this referendum failed of the required vote largely on account of the distressing conditions of labor throughout the country and the heavy pressure upon the trade caused by the introduction of machinery.

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[37] Barnett The Printers, p. 146.

[38] Ibid. p. 147.

[39] Typographical Journal Vol. V, No. 1, pp. 1-2.

By 1898 we find that, out of the seventeen locals reporting from Illinois, fourteen had a 59-hour week, one a 54-hour week, one a 48-hour week and one a 49-hour week.[40] By 1901 the 54-hour week prevailed for morning papers except in Chicago, where the 48- hour week had been achieved.[41] By 1904 a few of the other locals had won the fight for the 8-hour day, and in 1914 not a union shop in the state maintained more than a 48-hour week.

In places where there is no local of the union, hours are often longer, but even here the tendency is to shorten the working day to ten or nine hours.

The influence of the introduction of the Linotype upon this movement is apparent. The time actually spent by hand compositors in setting type was only about seven hours out of the eleven, the other four hours being utilized in distribution and in making corrections of the proofs. So when the Linotype was introduced it was easy to call eight hours a day's work, as no distribution was necessary. With this as an entering wedge it has been possible to extend the eight-hour day to the other branches of the trade. In 1904, when the 54-hour week was the rule for hand compositors, Linotype operators worked but forty-eight hours.

Before the introduction of the Linotye, the movement for a shorter working day had been confined almost entirely to the book and job printing establishments, but the large amount of unemployment following the introduction of the machine stimulated

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[40] Ibid. p. 134, Vol. 12.

[41] Ibid. Vol. 18, No. 11.

the agitation in the newspaper offices. "The most pronounced economic advantage accruing to the printers from the introduction of the machine has been the material reduction secured in the length of the working day."[42]

Other Conditions.

The chief evil of the printing industry, from a health point of view, has been lead poisoning. This disease has operated to make the trade very unhealthful in years past, many printers dying from diseases of the lungs and other diseases caused by a slow absorption of the poison.

Only recently has there been a decided movement for an improvement in the sanitary conditions of the newspaper office.

Dr. Alice Hamilton, Medical Investigator for the Illinois Commission on Occupational Diseases, observes:[43] "The printing trade is a striking example of a lead trade which is notoriously unhealthful, and needlessly so. It is carried on usually under wretched sanitary conditions with insufficient provision for carrying off fumes and accumulation of lead dust on floors, walls and machinery. It should be possible to make the printing trade as safe as most other indoor occupations, for it only requires provision for protecting the workingman against fumes and dust, and providing him with facilities for washing before he leaves work. As it is, the printers apparently suffer a good deal from chronic lead poisoning. Only 31 cases of the acute form were found in 1910

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[42]United States Bureau of Labor. Bulletin 67, p. 743.

[43]In American Labor Legislation Review, No. 1, 1911, p 24.

in Chicago, but the death records of the union show that there is an abnormally high death rate from diseases which may come from the slow absorption of lead, such as apoplexy, heart disease and kidney disease."

In another place Dr. Hamilton states:[44] "The printing trade has undergone rapid changes of late years, leading to the substitution of mechanical processes of linotyping for the old method of setting type by hand. These changes have not, however, done away with the dangers in the printing trade and it must always be remembered that there are still many small establishments in which the old hand work is carried on exclusively. The dangers in the printing trade come from the oxide of lead which forms very quickly on the surface of molten lead and more slowly on the surface of cold, solid lead. It is very light, and easily carried by a draft of air. Cases of lead poisoning among linotypers are said by the printers to be very rare. As for the solid lead, there is very little risk, if any, in handling freshly made type or plates. It is old type, covered with oxide, that causes the most danger to the compositor. The trade could be made healthful, but many of the places are dusty and dirty. Some of the best places are small offices, while some of the worst conditions are in large newspaper offices."

The linotype machines give off great quantities of the oxide from the molten lead, but the machines are now almost

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[44]Report of Illinois Commission on Occupational Diseases, January 1911, pp. 28 and 30.

universally provided with pipes which carry off the fumes. Some cities were rather backward, however, as we read that in 1914:[45] "A sanitary campaign has just been started in the newspaper offices. It will only be a short time until the linotype machines will be piped and the fumes therefrom carried out of the buildings."

The union has taken the matter up and some of the locals have "sanitary committees," whose duty it is to see that the factory laws in this regard are complied with. Prosecutions are often started and convictions sometimes obtained. The strong Chicago local of the Typographical Union has been prominent in the agitation for better sanitary conditions. In the Typographical Journal we read:[46] "In the campaign for better sanitary conditions of workrooms, which many local unions now have under way, much information could be gained from the report of the sanitation committee of the Chicago Typographical Union No. 16. The rules drafted by this committee provide for fire escapes free from obstruction, prohibit expectorating on the floor, compel the piping of machines, and the provision of one lavatory for every 30 male employees, and one for every 25 female employees. There are other rules of equal importance, chief of which are the following:

In every chapel where one or more persons are employed, at least 500 cubic feet of air space shall be provided for each and every person employed therein, and fresh air shall be supplied in such a manner as not to create injurious drafts, nor cause the

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[45] Letter from Danville to the Typographical Journal, March 1914, p. 360.

[46] September 1912, p. 13. Part of President's address at annual convention.

temperature of any such room to fall materially below the average temperature mantained.

"Cuspidors must be provided by the office or chapel, and same must be cleaned daily.

"The use of a common drinking cup is prohibited by city ordinances, and every member should provide himself with a glass or cup for his or her individual use." Conditions in Illinois offices seem to be no worse than in others. The reports of the State Chief Factory inspector describe the conditions as "excellent," "above the average," or with some similar terms.

The average age of compositors at death in Chicago is above the average, according to figures compiled by the New York State Bureau of Labor Statistics in 1906.[47] The figures are:

Year	Average age at death.
1901	43.77
1902	43.75
1903	44.38
1904	47.87
1905	46

The average for the five years is 45.39 years, the highest of any of the cities mentioned in the report. The average for the rest of the country under investigation was 43.82.

In the same report the statement is made that in the matter of deaths from diseases of the respiratory system, Chicago showed the lowest proportion from 1901-1905, the figures being 4.11 per 1000.[48]

[47] P. 112.

[48] P. 115.

At the conference of governors, held in Madison, Wisconsin, in December, 1914, Governor Dunne of Illinois mentioned some of the lines along which progress had been made in factory legislation and inspection. "Since the enactment of such laws the Illinois department has compelled over 18,000 dangerous machinery parts to be provided with safeguards. It has enforced the guarding of over 6,000 fire escapes and exits, and 7000 devices on elevators insuring their safety. It has enforced the guarding of over 43,000 belts and pulleys, 30,000 gears and 1800 emery wheels. It has compelled the removal of over 18,000 set screws. It has issued 13000 orders covering sanitation and ventilation and eliminated or compelled changes in over 137,000 possible sources of danger from machinery."[49]

The printing plants, being regarded as factories have come in for their share of improvement.

Other unions have given thought to the matter of sanitation and safety, as is evidenced from the following quotation:[50] "The International Stereotypers and Electrotypers Union demands from employers every possible improvement in the ventilated, lighted and sanitary conditions of all shops where its members are employed, together with the use of hoods, guards, and safety appliances on machinery and metal pots, to the end that the health of our members may be conserved and the danger of accidents be minimized and avoided."

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[49] Quoted in the International Stereotypers and Electrotypers Union Journal, December 1914, p. 25.

[50] Proceedings of 13th Annual Convention (1914) of International Stereotypers and Electrotypers Union. p. 23.

Aside from these matters pertaining to sanitation, there are other characteristics of the business, especially in daily newspaper offices, which affect the health of the employees. Chief among these is the speed demanded in all departments. The editors and reporters must work under high pressure, while the men in the mechanical department are forced to labor under a severe strain during the closing hours of the day.

Especially is this demand for speed felt by the linotype operators. The claim is made that this work is such a severe nervous strain that operators break down in a few years.

These difficulties have been met, in some measure at least, by a shortening of the hours of labor, discussed elsewhere.

The long hours, nervous strain, poor air and lack of exercise, which characterized the conditions under which the printer used to work, had an unwholesome influence upon him in creating an appetite for liquor or other stimulant. The old-fashioned "print" was in many cases a hard drinker, a fact so generally recognized that in 1896 the Chicago Chief of Police issued an order to the effect that any saloon within a radius of one-half block of a newspaper office would be allowed to remain open during the night, in order that the printers working on morning papers might not be deprived of their customary potations.[51]

The students of the subject give credit for the decrease in the drinking habit to the composing machine, which has shortened hours and made employment more steady. Also, sobriety on the part

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[51] The Fourth Estate, November 26, 1896, p. 1.

of the operators is demanded by the employers, as a Linotype, costing perhaps $4,000, is too expensive to be ruined by a drink-fuddled printer.

The steadiness of employment among printers has increased much in recent years. This is largely due to the change in the industry which has brought about the decadence of the all-round printer and the rise of the specialist.

In the days when a printer had to learn all the details of his trade it was to his advantage to journey from place to place and acquire knowledge of the way the industry was carried on in different shops. Habits thus formed were hard to break, and the printer continued to wander because he had learned to like the life.

Wherever he went he found conditions similar; there was always the news matter to be set up, and he could doff his coat and get to work. But of recent years, specialization has become the rule, so that conditions in different shops are not at all the same.

One man does a certain thing day after day, and learns to do it better than any other man could without long practice, so he can earn more there than he could earn anywhere else, while the tramp stands a correspondingly smaller chance of breaking in. It is this specialization, which enables the specialist to earn more in one shop than he could in any other, that has removed much of the incentive to travel and has steadied the industry in the matter of unemployment.

Strikes and Lock-outs.

Satisfactory figures covering only the newspaper and periodical branch of the industry for Illinois are not available, although the United States Commissioner of Labor has compiled some valuable tables covering the industry as a whole. From these and from frequent references in trade publications we are able to arrive at some general conclusions.

The first one is that in the newspaper and periodical branch of the publishing industry strikes have been fewer than in the book and job printing branch. This is partly because the number of unionized shops was smaller, but more because of the attitude of the newspaper publishers toward the unions. From the first the American Newspaper Publishers' Association advocated arbitration, and this method was adhered to in almost every case. When it came time to sign a new wage scale, if the employers and the union representatives could not agree, the matter was arbitrated, generally to mutual satisfaction.

This system was in vogue, however, only among the members of the Association, which has never included the smaller papers of the state. Such strikes as have occurred outside the few largest cities have been usually rather unimportant affairs, settled one way or the other in a few days and involving no serious disturbance of the industry.

In Chicago, however, there have been several strikes of a rather important nature, in spite of the efforts made in some instances on the part of the employers to arbitrate. Several of the most serious are described.

One of the most famous strikes occurred in 1898, when the Stereotypers' Union struck for higher wages and shorter hours. They were working eight hours a day for $3.25 and wanted $4.00 for seven hours a day. The union had an agreement with the Newspaper Publishers' Association which expired annually, and if either party wanted to change it, 30 days' notice was required. The stereotypers gave this 30 days' notice, and at the end of this time representatives of the two parties met to talk things over. The Spanish War was in progress and was a source of unusual expense to the publishers, who declared they could not grant the demands at that time. The stereotypers immediately struck, without notifying the national headquarters of the International Typographical Union, thus failing to comply with the law of the union. For this reason the union did not countenance the strike or lend it financial support.

The publishers met the situation with a characteristic unison of action and refused to print a paper until the strike was over. Thus, not only the sixty stereotypers, but the 600 compositors, 175 reporters, 150 pressmen and other employees were thrown out of work. These decided that the stereotypers were in the wrong and so declared officially, thereby paving the way for their return to work. The stereotypers had much trouble in getting their places back and almost a third of the strikers were blacklisted. Perhaps as a warning, wages of non-union stereotypers were reduced after the strike.

The strike lasted four days, from July 2 to July 5, 1898, while the battle of Santiago was in progress, the strikers having

chosen this time because they thought the publishers could not afford to miss the issue of a single edition. Instead of trying to get out the papers with new stereotypers, the publishers suspended publication entirely for the four days, and Chicago readers were forced to depend on papers from other cities and a few mushroom sheets which sprang up in the city. This arrayed the public and their fellow workers against the strikers, and the thing was soon over.[52]

In May, 1912, another serious strike occurred, the trouble originating in the Hearst press rooms, where the web pressmen claimed there were not enough men hired to man the presses properly. The strike spread to the other papers and was followed by strikes on the part of stereotypers, wagon drivers, and newsboys. The members of the Typographical Union refused to strike on the ground that the arbitration agreement with the Chicago publishers had been violated, because the pressmen had refused to arbitrate, although the employers offered to do so and to place the difference in wages in the hands of a third party while negotiations were in progress.

The strike of the wagon drivers almost destroyed the facilities for distributing the papers about the city and to trains, but the publishers kept putting on new men in various capacities until finally the drivers returned to work, the newsboys declared the strike off, and the stereotypers formed a new union. The

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[52] References on the strike of 1898. Hollander and Barnett, Studies in American Trade Unionism, p. 177. Typo. Journal Vol. 13, No. 2. July 15, 1898 p. 61. Report of United States Industrial Commission Vol. 7, p. 272. Testimony of Samuel B. Donnelly, President International Typographical Union, May 9, 1899. The Fourth Estate, July 7, 1898, p. 1.

International Typographical Union upheld the action of the Chicago local in refusing to participate.

In spite of the fact that the publishers scored a victory in the encounter, they suffered severe losses. For a time when the tie-up was almost complete, it is estimated that probably not more than 50,000 of the four morning papers were circulated per day.

The influence on the circulation of the papers is illustrated by the figures for the Daily News, whose circulation dropped from 259,000 to 127,000. The return to normal was not accomplished until seven or eight months after the strike was over.[53]

Up to 1885 collective bargaining among the printers was on an entirely local basis. The employer dealt only with the members of the local, knowing that they would receive no organized support from the other locals about the country. But in 1885 the Typographical Union decided to establish a defense fund for the support of unions on strike.[54]

From 1881 to 1885 inclusive there were five strikes of compositors in Illinois in the printing and publishing industry as a whole. But during the next few years, while the union was trying its new-found power, strikes were much commoner, twenty strikes of compositors being recorded from 1885 to 1894 inclusive. Six of these were successful.

Since 1894 we have no detailed accounts of the strikes in the industry, our only information being contained in the Reports

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[53]References: The Fourth Estate, Feb. 15, 1913 p. 15. Tracy,-History of the International Typographical Union pp. 1015-1025. Printers' Ink, May 1912, p. 43. Typographical Journal, Supplement to Vol. 43, p. 38.

[54]Barnett. The Printers, pp. 326-327.

of the United States Commissioner of Labor. Even these cease with 1906, so for the last ten years we have no authoritative data.[55]

The general tendency seems to be, however, to rely more upon arbitration and less upon strikes for the settlement of disputes. The publishers hiring union help are the proprietors of the larger papers, and these are generally making sufficient profits to pay the increases demanded, if they are not unreasonable. The negotiations are usually carried on between the publisher and some traveling representative of the union, and these latter appear to be for the most part very sensible men, inclined to see the employer's side of the case as well as the employees'.

Of course there are some strikes with which no union is connected, but they are relatively few in number and unimportant in size. From 1901 to 1905 inclusive, the latest figures we possess, there were 26 strikes, all but two of which were ordered by the union. The employees of one newspaper office stand scant show of winning a strike unless they have the union to support them.

Secretary Hays of the International Typographical Union says that since 1905 there have been eleven strikes participated in by the Union. These have been almost all settled to the satisfaction of the union, only one, a Bohemian office in Chicago, being lost. The question at issue in the smaller towns seems to have been the eight-hour day in six cases, with the matter of wages the matter of dispute in four. The cause of the other strike is not mentioned.[56]

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[55]The Reports devoted to strikes and lockouts are the 16th Annual Report, 1901; and 21st Annual Report, 1906.

[56]From a personal letter to the writer.

There have been other strikes, of stereotypers, or pressmen, but they are relatively very few in number.

As a general tendency, it is evident that strikes are becoming fewer in number, both parties having learned their lesson. When the unions began to feel themselves all-powerful they struck at the slightest provocation and until the employers learned the power of the unions they did not adopt a very conciliatory attitude, so strikes were frequent. Now, however, the unions have learned that strikes are expensive, and so have the employers, therefore neither is eager to inaugurate one.

Then, too, the printers have obtained demands equal to those obtained by workers in most other skilled trades, and are for the time being quite well satisfied with conditions. Furthermore, employers have learned, through co-operation, how to shift the costs of increased wages on to the consumers of the printed product, so the burden does not gall them as it did at first.

Lock-outs have been far less frequent than strikes, only nine being reported between 1880 and 1905. Seven of these were ordered by some organization. Inonly one year, 1903, was the movement wide-spread, but in that year 197 establishments participated. In only ten of these did the effort succeed. Up until 1900 every lock-out succeeded, but in 1901 the only attempt failed, and in 1903 but ten out of 197 succeeded, so the system seems to have received a severe check, the growing strength of the unions being in part responsible.

Woman Labor.

Prevalence.- It seems to be a mooted question whether woman labor is becoming more prevalent in the printing and publishing industry, or has about reached its maximum and is destined to decline with the introduction of machinery to do the tasks yet left to hand labor.

The United States Senate Report on Women and Children in Industry says: "It is evident that this is one of the industries where women are gaining at the expense of men."[57]

Miss Abbott, on the other hand, states that the women are not driving out the men very fast; that the woman competitor has been a comparatively slight problem in the printing trade.[58] A few facts are ascertainable, however. The first is that the number of women in the newspaper and periodical branch of the printing and publishing industry is increasing.

The census figures follow:

1880	491[59]
1890	786[60]
1900	972[61]
1905	1195[62]
1910 -- Not separated into classes	

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[57] Vol. 9, p. 221.

[58] Abbott. Women in Industry, p. 260.

[59] Tenth Census, Vol. 8 p. 178-179. Special Report on newspapers and periodicals. No mention as to age of "females" enumerated. Does not include those employed in book and job printing.

[60] Newspapers and periodicals only, 11th census Vol. 6 p. 278.

[61] Newspapers and periodicals only, Females over 16, 12th Census Vol. 8, p. 176-177.

[62] Bulletin 52, 1905, p. 36-37, Newspapers and periodicals only.

The percentage of the whole number of adult persons employed which the women form is shown below:

Newspapers and Periodicals:

1880	9.4[63]
1890	13.6[64]
1900	13.6[65]
1905	16.8[66]
1910 -- Not given	

These figures show that in the newspaper and periodical branch of the industry, at least, the proportion of women is on the increase. Some facts regarding the distribution of these female workers are of interest. The first data we have is in 1900, when we find that out of 972 in the state, only 309 were located in Chicago.[67]

This is in striking contrast to the conditions in the book and job branch of the industry, where out of 2252 women employed in the state, 2086 were in Chicago.[68] This situation obtains throughout the period.

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[63]10th Census Vol. 8. Special Report on newspapers and periodicals. Does not include those employed in editorial work.

[64]11th Census. Manufacturing Industries Part III. p. 678. Includes operatives, skilled and unskilled, editors, sub-editors and reporters.

[65]12th Census Vol. 8, pp. 176-177, "Average number of Wage-earners."

[66]Bulletin 52 p. 7 for average number of wage-earners; p. 36-37 for average number of women 16 years and over.

[67]12th Census Vol. 8, p. 185.

[68]Ibid.pp. 177 and 185.

In 1910 we have the figures only for the industry as a whole, but knowing this tendency, we can extract some significance from them. Of 3550 semi-skilled operatives in the state, 2822 were in Chicago.[69] These are mostly bindery girls. In another table we find slightly different figures showing the same tendency. A comparison of the two tables follows:

	No. of female Wage-earners 10 years old and over	% of total wage-earners
For Chicago Only.[70]		
Compositors, Linotypers & Typesetters	396	
Electrotypers & Stereotypers	7	
Lithographers	31	
Laborers	126	
Pressmen	8	
Semi-skilled operatives	3071	
	3639	20.4
For state as a whole.[71]		
Compositors, Linotypers & Typesetters	1014	
Electrotypers & Stereotypers	9	
Lithographers	49	
Laborers	243	
Pressmen	14	
Semi-skilled operatives	3865	
	5194	21.6

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[69] 13th Census Vol. 4, pp. 455-456 and pp. 544-547.

[70] 13th Census Vol. 4, table III.

[71] 13th Census Vol. 4, p. 99.

This indicates that the proportion of women in the state as a whole is slightly greater than that in Chicago, due to their more general employment as compositors in the smaller towns. The semi-skilled operatives are found mostly in Chicago in the big job printing establishments.

The tendency is still further emphasized by the figures for the other cities of the state having 25,000 population and over, Aurora, Bloomington, Danville, Decatur, East St. Louis, Elgin, Joliet, Peoria, Rockford and Springfield. These cities employ only 35 female compositors, linotypers and typesetters, while they employ 247 semi-skilled operatives.

This brings the totals:

For state outside of cities of 25,000 and over:		% of whole no. of women wage-earners.
Compositors, linotypers and typesetters	583	57.5
Semi-skilled operatives	547	14.1

Over one-half the compositors, linotypers and typesetters are in the places under 25,000, while only 14% of the semi-skilled are so located.

The only figures showing the percentage which woman employed in the newspaper and periodical branch bear to the whole number of women employed in the printing and publishing industry as a whole are in the census reports for 1890, 1900 and 1905.

The percentages are:

1890[72]	36.7%
1900[73]	30.0%
1905[74]	27.2%

This shows that the percentage of women employed in the newspaper and periodical branch is on the decrease, in comparison with the whole number of women in the industry.

Probably at the present time not more than 25% of all the women engaged in the printing and publishing industry are in the newspaper and periodical branch, or about 1300 in 1910. The following table throws some light on the ages of women employed in the printing and publishing industry.

For Illinois as a Whole.

	16-20	21-44	45 and over
Compositors, linotypers and typesetters	388	589	36
Laborers	129	83	3
Semi-skilled	1962	1537	51
Editors and reporters	49	270	77

These indicate that the younger women are found in the majority doing the lower grades of labor. While the higher grades are performed by the more mature employees. The reports of the chief State Factory Inspector throw little light on the number or proportion of women employed, as the data are too scant for valid conclusions. For example, in the year ending June 30, 1914, he reports

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[72] 11th Census Vol. 6, p. 278.

[73] 12th Census Vol. 8, p. 177. [74] Bulletin 52, p. 36-37.

visiting 12 establishments, where were employed 84 females and 517 males, or 13.9%.[75] These figures are for newspapers and periodicals only.

In the same report he tells of visiting 24 newspaper and periodical offices in Chicago, finding 4412 males over 16 and 1059 females, or a percentage of 19.3.[76] The only figures by which we can estimate the proportion of women employed in the newspaper and periodical branch who work in Chicago to those in the state at large are those of 1900.[77]

Here we find that 31.7% of the women in the newspaper and periodical branch of the industry were employed in Chicago, the other 68.3 being employed in the smaller places of the state.

As compositors, women have not yet proved very active competitors of the men. In 1892, in Chicago, the showing of women as compositors was meagre in comparison with the number employed in the city.[78]

In 1910 women formed only 8.3% of the total force of compositors, linotypers and typesetters in the state.[79] These are largely employed on "straight matter," in the smaller towns where the composing machine has not been introduced.

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[75] 21st Annual Report of Chief Factory Inspector for Illinois year ending June 30, 1914, p. 199.

[76] Page 62.

[77] 12th Census, Vol. 8 pp. 177 and 185.

[78] Report of Bureau of Labor Statistics, Illinois 1892 p. 105.

[79] 13th Census, Vol. 4, p. 99.

When the linotype was first introduced, it was feared that women operators would displace the men. But such has not proved the case. For various reasons, women have proved inferior to the men as machine operators. They cannot maintain the high speed for the required time, although they learn the keyboard readily. Neither can they diagnose the numerous minor ailments from which a machine suffers, as quickly as the men, who seem to master the mechanical principles more easily.

That female compositors are kept on "straight matter" instead of being taught to set advertisements and jobs, is due to several causes.

In the first place, the trade is one requiring long apprenticeship to learn, and most women master but a small part of it. This is because they have no way of learning the trade properly.[80] Printing is still a skilled trade, and, while apprenticeships are nominally open to women, no employer wants the trouble of having a girl apprentice around, when he can get so many more odd jobs out of a boy. The girls, therefore, are compelled to "steal the trade," and few succeed.

President Samuel B. Donnelly of the International Typographical Union in testifying before the United States Industrial Commission, said that the tendency was to keep women on straight matter and not permit them to reach high standards as printers.[81]

We read in Printers' Ink[82] that between 400 and 500 women

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[80] Abbott - Women in Industry p. 254.

[81] Vol. 7, p. 277.

[82] Printers' Ink, 1890, p. 243.

were employed in Chicago in 1890, mostly in book and periodical printing houses. A few were with the morning papers to distribute type. Many were employed on trade journals, where the pay was so low men would not work. Professor Barnett says: "straight composition is now done largely on machines, and a steady lessening of the demand for hand-set straight matter seems likely. Unless, therefore, women can profitably operate the machines, it appears probable that the field for their employment as printers will narrow. Besides, there are not so many of them employed as hand compositors, so they cannot get the preliminary training necessary for learning the machine.[83]

Press feeding is easy and is done considerably by women, but the work of caring for the presses involves too much strength and climbing.[84] Many women read proof, hold copy, and do part of the job printing, which comprises part of the work in small newspaper offices.

And there is recorded the fact that one Illinois girl, Miss Agnes Lameson, in 1902 was editor, publisher, compositor, pressman and entire force of the Alto Pass Progress, even operating the heavy handpress herself.[85] Some idea of the extent to which women have been utilized as machine operators is given by the reports of the union secretaries. In 1901 out of a total of 7228 machine operators reported, 265 or 3.6% were women. In 1904 out of a total of 9565 operators reported, 520 or 5.5% were women. In 1914 out of a total of 15,809 reported, 888 or 5.6% were women.

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[83] The Printers page 317.

[84] Progress of Labor Organizations among Women. Belva M. Herron. University of Illinois Studies Vol. I No. 10 p. 17.

[85] The Fourth Estate. September 20, 1902, page 9.

Laws and Woman Labor. The laws of Illinois have given scant protection to female factory workers until recently. An act of 1893 limiting the hours of labor of females in any factory or workshop to 8 hours a day was declared unconstitutional in 1895 by the Supreme Court in Ritchie vs. the People, 155 Illinois 98, on the ground that regulation of the hours of labor is in excess of the powers of the legislature.

Until 1909 they had no protection, but in that year a statute was enacted which forbade the employment of females more than 10 hours per day in mechanical establishments, factories and laundries. As amended in 1911 it also provides that all employers shall keep a time book showing for each day the hours during which each and every female is employed. The department of factory inspection is expressly charged with the enforcement of the act. The only penalty for violation is a fine.

Women and the Unions. A comparatively small percentage of the women who work in printing offices belong to the International Typographical Union. The union admits women on equal terms with men, but the average female printer if she joins the union, finds it difficult to secure or hold a job in competition with the male members of the union, so most women printers prefer to stay outside the union and work in non-union or open shops at a wage below the union scale.[86] It would frequently resolve itself into a question of no job at all, or one at lower wages, and of the two the latter is the lesser evil. Employers say that this insistence upon a uniform scale for men and women is simply a means of putting

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[86] Abbott.-Women in Industry page 261.

women out of the trade.[87] Indeed there is some reason to believe that this is the end aimed at by the union officials, altho they accomplish their aim under a guise of equity and impartiality. "Officers of other trade unions frequently refer to the policy of the printers as an example of the way in which trade union control may be successful in checking or preventing the employment of women."[88]

As for Illinois, the presence of women in the union is insignificant. In the country towns, where female help is often employed in setting the straight matter on the weekly papers, the unions are not organized, while in Chicago there are few female members of the International Typographical Union. The nature of the trade is such as to preclude the extensive employment of women; since newspapers, trade journals, job work, and an enormous amount of catalog printing constitute the greater part of the business; most of this is rush work, is made up of other than straight type-setting, and is paid by the time scale, all of which make it unsuited to women. "It is believed by those familar with the situation that the conditions of the trade would be greatly improved for all concerned if women could be induced to organize, either independently or in conjunction with the men, and maintain a uniform scale of prices. Unions will take them in, but demand that they shall know something more than enough merely to set straight matter."[89]

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[87] Progress of Labor Organizations among Women. Belva M. Herron. University of Illinois Studies Vol. I, No. 10.

[88] Abbott.-Women in Industry, page 260.

[89] Illinois Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1892 Report, page 106.

As an example of the difficulties which female printers place in the way of union organization, the following excerpts from reports of International Typographical Union organizers are offered:[90] "On the way home stopped at Kankakee, Illinois, where I endeavored to form a union, but was unsuccessful, as too many girls are employed at very small wages." Later it seems that this barrier was surmounted, as a letter from Kankakee to the Typographical Journal in 1914 said, "Several women members are employed in the various chapels, who are equally as enthusiastic as the men in their promulgation of organization and unionism."[91] "On October 1, 1899, I was ordered to Kewanee, Illinois, where the week-scale of $11 had been reduced to $6.50, for the purpose, as stated by some of the members, of keeping out machines." The female printers in the union were held responsible for this step.[92]

We are now in a position to generalize a little.

1. The number of women employed in the newspaper and periodical branch of the printing and publishing industry is increasing.

2. The proportion of women wage-earners to the whole number of wage-earners is increasing.

3. The increase is taking place faster in the book and job branch than in the newspaper and periodical branch of the industry.

4. The employment of women in the newspaper and periodical branch of the publishing and printing industry is more prevalent

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90 International Typographical Union Proceedings 1896, page 36.

91 February 1914, page 200.

92 International Typographical Union Proceedings 1900.

in the smaller places than in Chicago.

5. The two branches of employment open to women are composition and semi-skilled labor. They are used very little as electrotypers, stereotypers, or pressmen.

6. It is in the semi-skilled field that women compete chiefly with men. They outnumber them 3865 to 3674 in the state. As compositors, women form only 8.3% of the total labor force.[93]

Women as Journalists. Into this department, even more than the mechanical line, have women been forcing their way. The period from 1880 to 1915 may be divided into three periods as regards the presence of women in the newspaper and periodical office. From 1880 to about 1890 women were rarely found acting as editors or reporters. The work was not considered fit for them, with its hardships and rush.

The next period was that of the "new woman" of the 'nineties, who affected mannish attire and, in the first enthusiasm of fancied emancipation, rushed in where she had hitherto feared to tread. In this period we find women reporters writing all manner of freak stories, and the larger papers each had a woman's page, often conducted by a woman. The sex distinction was emphasized, the novelty of having women do newspaper work being the attraction. The women didn't have to do the work well. They did not compete with the men. They occupied their positions because they were women.

This period lasted until almost 1900, when the present one opened. This last period is marked by a loss of sex distinction and an insistence on the part of the employer that results be

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[93] 13th Census Vol. 4, page 99.

obtained. If a woman can do the work better than a man, she gets the job; but not because she is a woman.

Miss Elizabeth Jordan, editor of Harper's Bazar, said in 1900, "Five years ago women in newspapers were novelties and their work was consequently easy. Now it is not. The woman's page is a thing of the past; now, if a woman gets a job on a paper, it is because she can do the work, not because she is a woman."[94] Some idea of the range of women's journalistic activities recently may be gathered from the enumeration made by Mary O'Connor Newell, Woman's Editor of the Chicago Herald, in speaking before the National Editorial Association in 1915. She said that women conduct departments of society, clubs, suffrage, boys and girls, children's story telling, domestic science, etiquette, exercise, shopping, beauty, advice to the heartsore, crochet, gardening, interior decoration, etc. The Herald's literary and art editors are women, and they also have a movie editor, who is a woman. "Women in Chicago have been editorial writers, Sunday editors, literary editors, dramatic editors. I don't know any woman who has been city or managing editor. A woman has a chance to be anything she is able on a modern newspaper."[95]

In 1912 the Chicago News had a female editorial writer, Mrs. Helen Sterrett, who was said to be a good one.[96]

In 1905 Miss Helen Shaw was made editor of Lord and Thomas' magazine, Judicious Advertising, published monthly in

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[94] The Fourth Estate, October 6, 1900, page 15.

[95] National Printer-Journalist Vol. 33; 1915, p. 523.

[96] The Fourth Estate, June 8, 1912.

Chicago.[97]

The census gives us some data on the movement.

Editors and Reporters.

	Males over 16.	Females over 15.	
1890[98]	922	35	3.6%
	Males over 10	Females over 10	
1910[99]	2444	396	13.9%

The difference in age limits may be disregarded, as nobody between 10 and 16 years of age would be likely to be employed in this capacity. This shows that the percentage of women editors and reporters in the whole number has increased greatly. The distribution of these 396 women editors and reporters in 1910 is interesting; 191 of them were in Chicago, and 53 more in the towns between 25,000 and 100,000 inhabitants. This leaves 152 for the rest of the state. In Chicago the women constituted 12.7% of the editors and reporters, in the cities between 25,000 and 100,000 population, 17.3%; and in the rest of the state, 14.7%. This would indicate that women are found in greatest proportion in the newspaper offices of the small cities where the work of the office is sufficient to require some division of labor, and yet not so strenuous in character as in Chicago. The predominance of evening dailies in the smaller cities, as distinguished from Chicago with its big morning dailies is another factor.

The future of women in journalism is difficult to deter-

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[97] Printers' Ink, 1905 No. 4, page 28.

[98] 11th Census Manufacturing Industries Part III pp. 678.

[99] 13th Census Vol. 4, page 107.

mine, although it seems at present to be very bright. The practice of journalism is becoming standardized and elevated to the rank of a profession, so that women may prepare themselves for it better than formerly. "The great trouble," said E. L. Shuman, a Chicago journalist of long experience, some years ago, "with young women, as with young men, is that they forget that journalism is a profession requiring years of training, trial and failure before it is learned."[100]

Melville E. Stone, manager of the Associated Press, deplores the fact that too many women confine themselves to the fashions and beauty columns, as he believes they are capable of doing better things in a journalistic line.[101]

Many others, in writing on the subject, express the same opinion.

It would appear that the women employed on Chicago newspapers and periodicals are employed on the smaller publications, and not on the big dailies, although the Tribune, for example, has thirty women in its editorial department.

The opportunities for women in the business department are many. They are and have been used as stenographers, solicitors of advertisements by 'phone, and as assistants in the many clerical details. In the Tribune office 27% of the business force are women and only 11% of the editorial and news staff.

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[100] Olin-Journalism page 55

[101] The Fourth Estate, June 8, 1912.

Child Labor.

The data we possess on the extent of child labor in the newspaper and periodical publishing industry are rather scant, because the employment of children in the industry is not common.

Those bent on reforming the evil of child labor in our industrial system have little to say regarding the use of children in newspaper and periodical establishments. The census gives us some data. Operatives, skilled and unskilled. Children, meaning boys under 17 and girls under 16.

1890	572[102]
1900	435 Children under 16[103]
1905	129 Children under 16[104]
1910	136 Children under 16 Estimated.[105]

Percentage of children under 16 years of age employed in newspapers and periodicals of the whole number in printing and publishing industry.

1890	77.2%[102]
1900	63.9%[103]
1905	32.5%[104]
1910	25.0% estimated.[106]

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[102] 11th Census Manufacturing Industries, Part III p.278.

[103] 12th Census Vol. 8 pp. 176-177.

[104] Bulletin 52, page 36-37.

[105] 13th Census Vol. 4, page 452-453.

[106] 13th Census Vol. 4, pages 452-453.

For 1910 the number of children employed in the printing and publishing industry as a whole was 546, the number in each branch not being separately stated. However, it we note the figures for the three previous censuses, we see that the newspaper and periodical branch has been employing a rapidly diminishing percentage of the children employed in the industry as a whole. In view of this rapid decrease, it seems that 25% is a very liberal estimate of the percentage for 1910. If we accept this estimate, we find that only about 136 children were employed in the newspaper and periodical branch in 1910. Indeed, this estimate of 25% seems large, as in 1908, when the Reports of the State Factory Inspector first separated the two branches of the industry, we find that in Chicago the printing and publishing industry as a whole contained 3.4% of the Illinois children between 14 and 16 who were employed, while the newspaper and periodical branch employed only .7 of 1%. Thus in Chicago the newspaper and periodical branch employed only 20.6% of the children employed in the industry. Outside of Chicago the percentage for the industry as a whole is .7% of which more than 20.6% are probably in the newspaper offices.

The reports of the State Factory Inspector show that during the decade from 1899 to 1909 the employment of children in the printing and publishing business has remained about stationary, while the proportion employed in all industries, taken as a whole, has shown a decline. This would indicate that the printing and publishing business had reached an equilibrium sooner than some of the other industries.

Printing and publishing plants are factories, and come

under the general acts for the regulation of conditions and hours of labor in such. The first law touching child labor in printing establishments was passed in 1893, and provided that no child under 14 years of age should be employed in any factory, manufacturing establishment or workshop within the state. Between the ages of 14 and 16 the child was required to furnish an affidavit as to age, date and place of birth, made by parent or guardian, or it would be unlawful to employ him. We find no record of convictions under this act, so infer that the printers were quite law-abiding. It is probable that the inspectors devoted their time to industries where they were more likely to find violations of the law, as the census of 1890 gives only 572 children employed on newspapers and periodicals in the whole state. The absense of any special reports on the printing and publishing industry from the office of the factory inspector would tend to show this industry was not important from his standpoint.

The next act was passed in 1897 and contained provisions similar to the one of 1893. A new feature was the provision that 60 hours per week and 10 hours per day should be the maximum number of hours a child between 14 and 16 could legally be employed. In the enforcement of this law the inspectors seem to have busied themselves with other industries, as no convictions of employing printers were discovered.

In 1903 the legislature went into the subject of child labor more fully and enacted a law much more complete in its provisions, but covering practically the same ground as the preceding one. The legal maximum number of hours of labor was reduced from 10 to 8.

Child labor in the newspaper and periodical branch of the printing and publishing industry has never been a problem in the legal sense, as a negligible number of children under 14 have been employed. Even the number between 14 and 16 years of age has been too small to attract the attention of reformers or factory inspectors.

The reasons for this slight employment of children are not difficult to discover. The industry is carried on by skilled labor, and the child is incompetent. The decline in the percentage of children employed is due to the changing character of the industry, which has become more and more carried on by machinery, so that now hardly a process is performed without the aid of some machine. Most of these machines are complicated and expensive, so that a child could not properly operate them.

The chief reason for the employment of children is the belief that they are cheaper, but in a machine industry this is often not true. In his report for 1896, the State Factory Inspector says:[107] "A secondary cause of employment of children is the belief that their labor is cheap. This cheapness is largely illusory."

The employment of children between the ages of 14 and 16 in newspaper and periodical offices has not been deplored very much by those who were conversant with the situation. Perhaps more than any other employment it provides an education for the child, especially if he take up the work of a compositor. He must learn to spell and punctuate, must master the rules of grammar,

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[107] Page 30.

and in the course of his work absorbs much valuable knowledge from the copy he sets up. The State Chief Factory Inspector says:[108] "In the printing trades the children under 16 years of age have a reasonably good chance for advancement, especially as 'devils.'" On another page he says,[109] "It is possible to start them upon some line of responsible work, that is at the same time not dangerous enough to be included under section 11 of the Child Labor Act." The latest report of the Illinois Bureau of Labor Statistics contains some interesting points on child labor in the publishing industry.[110]

The investigation covers only eleven children employed by publishers, all in Chicago, but the facts are thought to be typical. Eight of the eleven were girls employed in clerical work. The other three were boys employed as office boys. Seven of the 11 had finished the 8th grade, 3 had completed the 7th and 1 only the 6th. This last was attending night school. The condition of employment was said to be good in every case, as were the apparent physical and mental condition of the children. The average wage of the eleven was exactly $5.50, varying from $4.50 to $7.00. The employers in every case expressed themselves as being in favor of a minimum age of 16 years instead of 14.

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[108] 21st Annual Report, page 68.

[109] Page 23.

[110] 17th Biennial Report of the Bureau of Labor Statistics Published 1915, pages 104-105.

Vocational Education.

Special education for work in the newspaper industry has assumed three phases corresponding to the organization of the industry into the technical, journalistic and business departments. In each of these lines progress has been made as indicated in the following pages.

Industrial Education. The movement for trade education seems to be the result of two forces. On the one hand are the employers, who want to train up more workers in the trades, thereby stimulating competition for the jobs and making for lower wages. And on the other hand are the labor unions, who fear this very thing, but are striving to educate their members to a higher degree of efficiency. The labor leaders affirm their belief in practical education, but they fear the results of the half-way methods pursued by many schools, which turn out partly-trained men who overcrowd the labor market and lower the standards of the trade.

However, the movement is the natural result of the modern system of industry, which has broken down completely the old apprenticeship rules. The printing industry has become so subdivided that the time of an apprentice would be consumed in mastering any one of a dozen branches. Then, the apprentice does not work under the proprietor, but under a foreman, whose aim it is to "get results" and he can do this better by putting the boy at work on some simple machine or routine task, and keeping him there, than by spending time to explain to him points about the trade. And the journeyman must fill out his time card. He would suffer

in the employer's estimation and likely lose his place if he turned in a card bearing an entry like this: "9:30-10:15. Showing Willie how to set up title page of Jones' booklet."

Neither can the manufacturer be blamed for this; his business is to make money. But neither can the boy be blamed. He has to obey orders.

A great variety of schools of all sorts have arisen to cope with the problem -- manual training schools, vocational schools, technical high schools, trade preparatory schools, apprenticeship schools, trade schools, part-time schools, co-operative schools, etc.

The unions have also assailed the problem, the printing trade unions having been in the front in this movement. "That the typographical union and the printing pressmen should be the first trades unions to establish such schools was a foregone conclusion, for in proportion as an occupation makes claim on the intellect of the workers greater opportunities become necessary. Those trades which call for the greatest intellectual or technical skill on the part of the worker afford the most available opportunities for educational activity."[111] This is because these trades are becoming more technical and subdivided in character. Probably the International Typographical Union school in Chicago is the most widely known of these schools. It was organized in 1908, when a course of lessons was formulated, to be given by correspondence under the auspices of the Inland Printer Technical School of Chicago, an institution which for years had been educating members

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[111] Report of Committee on Industrial Education of the American Federation of Labor 1912, page 25.

of the International Typographical Union in both machine and hand composition at its Chicago establishment.

The course is an effort to teach and disseminate the art principles that underlie good typography. The lessons are arranged logically, principles being expounded first and then the student solves problems in practical work under competent instructors. There are forty-six lessons: nine on lettering; nine on punctuation, decoration, spacing and proofreading; five on design; five on color harmony; ten on composition of various forms of work; four on imposition; one on plate making; one on paper making; one on lay-outs of books; one on hand-lettered advertisements. The price now is $25 if paid in cash, or $30 in installments. Thousands of students have been enrolled, of which about five hundred from Illinois have been graduated from the linotype course and about a thousand from the International Typographical Union course.[112]

The course has proved so beneficial to the trade that several Chicago employers of printers have paid the expenses of their employees to take it.[113]

The Chicago Employing Printers' Association has entered into an agreement with International Typographical Union No. 16 (the Chicago Local) whereby apprentices are required to take the course the last year of their apprenticeships, a special increase

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[112] Letter to the author from A. H. McQuilken under date of August 17, 1915.

[113] Inland Printer 41:95.

of wages being provided for this purpose.[114] One of the provisions of a new wage scale at Danville, negotiated in 1914, was that all apprentices must take the International Typographical Union's course of instruction.[115]

The United Typothetae have for several years maintained a school at Indianapolis, where a number of Illinois printers have received instruction. The pressmen were not far behind the compositors, founding a school at Rogersville, Tennessee, in 1912. This school both gives a correspondence instruction, and personally teaches a small number, the term of instruction being six weeks. Admission to the school is open only to members of the International Printing Pressmen and Assistants' Union.[116] The course is designed to cover all phases of the work, including a study of inks, papers, and all kinds of press-work proper.

Quite a large number of Illinois pressmen have taken the course, both in person and by correspondence. The influence on the trade has not had time to become as apparent as that of the International Typographical Union course, but in a few years will have exerted a very uplifting influence.

The National Association of Photo-Engravers in 1906 purchased Austin College from the city of Effingham, Illinois, and transformed it into a school of instruction in the trade. Tuition was placed at $150 for the entire course. This is said to be the

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[114] Tracy.-History of the International Typographical Union page 1107.

[115] Typographical Journal November 1914, page 596.

[116] Report of Committee on Industrial Education of the American Federation of Labor 1912, pages 25-28.

only institution of its kind in the world.[117] An organized, though local, effort was made in 1904 in Chicago by the local typographical union to help the apprentices gain a knowledge of the trade. The union authorized a series of lectures to apprentices, which were fairly well attended, about one hundred boys and some journeymen taking advantage of the opportunity.[118]

By 1915 the problem of educating apprentices had become so acute that some of the employing printers of Chicago decided to co-operate with the union officials in establishing an apprentices' school in that city. Twenty-five employers agreed to let off some 107 boys half a day a week for instruction, which was to be given free. No reduction was to be made in the boys' wages. The length of the course was placed at five years, or as long as a boy remains an apprentice, and forty weeks each year.[119] One firm of employing printers, R. R. Donnelley & Sons Company of Chicago, known as the Lakeside Press, took the matter of training the apprentice into its own hands in 1908, when it established a school for apprentices. The object of the school is to train competent workmen for the several departments of the establishment. The boys must be graduates of the grammar schools, and between 14 and 16 years of age for the composing room, altho 16 years is the minimum for the press-room.[120] During the first two years the boys work 4 1/2 hours daily in the

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[117] Inland Printer Vol. 35, page 889. (1906)

[118] Inland Printer Vol. 34, page 588, January 1905.

[119] Typographical Journal, June 1915, pages 894-895.

[120] National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education Bulletin No. 11, page 76.

shops, and spend 3 1/2 hours daily in the factory schoolroom. One-half the time in the school is spent in trade instruction, under a competent instructor; the other half is devoted to academic studies. After the first two years apprentices are required to spend full time in the factory shops, and must take evening instruction, three nights a week, two hours each night, in a school provided by the company.[121] Instruction is given in arithmetic, English, drawing, physiography, simple book-keeping, algebra, geometry and the elements of mechanics. Some attention is given to the history of the alphabet and of printing. These subjects are all taught from the practical point of view rather than the purely academic.

On the practical side, the boys work in the various departments of the plant, in order to learn all branches of the trade, and to be able ultimately to select the particular line they will later follow as a trade.

This is during the first two years. For the next five, or regular apprenticeship term, the boys work full time in the factory and go to school at night, taking up more advanced subjects, as industrial history, mechanics and economics.

The establishment contains linotype and monotype machines, a book-binding department, press-room, photo-engraving department, art department, and hand composing department. The Loyal Order of the Moose maintain a home for orphans of members at Mooseheart, Illinois, where some courses in printing are taught the boys.

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[121] The School for Apprentices of the Lakeside Press, R. R. Donnelley & Sons Company.

A number of the public schools have also joined the movement to help the boy to learn a trade. The Lane Technical High School of Chicago has a department of printing. The evening class is open four nights a week to those working at the printing trade, and the instruction is largely supplemental. The records show a splendid attendance, a real interest in classwork and a gain in efficiency that comes from instructors skilled in their trade. Members of the union are engaged as teachers.[122] In the Typographical Journal in 1914[123] we read, "Printing departments are being introduced in schools of all kinds and grades."

The State Reformatory at Pontiac maintains quite a printing plant, where the boys learn some branches of the trade while turning out work for some of the other state institutions. The Illinois Manual Training Farm at Glenwood has a few boys learning the trade.[124] The Illinois Soldiers' Orphans' Home at Normal recently has installed a course in printing. The classes are 1 1/2 hours a day, 5 days a week. The instruction is based on the International Typographical Union's course. The instructor, Wm. E. Rominger, was a linotype operator at Shelbyville and a member of the International Typographical Union.[125] A committee of the City Club of Chicago made an elaborate report on Vocational Training in Chicago and in other cities in 1912, wherein they

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[122] Typographical Journal August 1915, Supplement pp. 262-63.

[123] Volume 45, page 600.

[124] 25th Annual report of the Commissioner of Labor 1910, pages 89-90.

[125] Typographical Journal January 1916, page 17.

recommended the printing trades as one of the 6 trades furnishing appropriate shop work for a proposed two-year elementary vocational school, which would take children who had finished the 6th grade.

The printing trades were also recommended as appropriate for courses in the technical high schools.

In the Report on Vocational Training prepared by a committee of the City Club of Chicago, some light is thrown on the attitude of employing printers in the city.

Thirty-five printing establishments were investigated. In answer to the question: Do you have difficulty in obtaining or training skilled employees? Eighteen proprietors of job printing and newspaper establishments answered "yes" and two "no". Asked if it was hard to get good foremen and department heads, sixteen said yes and three said no.

Of nine groups of industries, printing was shown to be the hardest in which to secure good workmen, and third in the matter of difficulty experienced in getting foremen and superintendents. Only two out of twenty-eight proprietors thought that a larger supply of skilled labor would not advance their business. It was shown that proprietors obtained their skilled employees quite generally from sources other than their own shops, 74.2% reporting that they trained few or none of their skilled employees.

The proprietors of printing establishments did not show themselves so anxious to have the public schools undertake to teach the trade as did those in other lines of industry. Out of 8 groups of industries, printing was seventh in this demand.

The figures regarding the number of employees under eighteen years of age being trained shows that the printers are

second among the nine groups of industries investigated in the matter of training their own apprentices. Out of the total printing force investigated, 12.1% is under eighteen and is being trained in the trade. The next highest industry shows but 5%. These last two tables would seem to show that proprietors of printing establishments are among the most enlightened of employers, realizing that the boy who can go to school ought to do so, and that the effort to teach him a smattering of a trade in school is not of much value. However, a majority of the employing printers looked with favor on a system which would teach the boys a definite trade.

Journalistic Education. Until a few years ago, the newspaper office was considered no place for college graduates. The seasoned reporter looked with scorn upon the lad who had tried to learn something of newspaper writing in a classroom. In the printing trade Journals of the 'eighties this sentiment is strongly manifest, the weight of opinion seeming to be that the only efficient school of instruction for a would-be journalist was the stern school of experience. But gradually this sentiment has given place to a different view, so that now it is the college man who is given first call for the reporter's place, and most of our city papers employ a majority of such in their editorial and news rooms. Perhaps the opinion of the old school of newspaper men regarding the qualifications of the young college graduate was not wholly unfounded, and in the changes made in the college courses for aspiring journalists we may find the reason for the shifting views on the point.

A study of literature and composition was about as far as the old kind of preparation went, the student being given little

knowledge of real newspaper work. He entered the work with an ability to turn out fine specimens of rhetoric, but with an inadequate idea of the sort of writing demanded of him. He knew nothing of the organization of the industry, either as regards the plant organization or in its relation to other factors. But the courses in journalism have been broadened to include much not at first attempted. They are conducted by practical newspaper men, who try to carry on their class work in something of the atmosphere of a real newspaper office. They teach how the industry is organized, something of the mechanical side, and in many cases the colleges or universities provide opportunities for practical application of the theories expounded, in the conducting of a college paper. This sort of training turns out graduates who are equipped far more fully than were those of thirty years ago.

In short, the tendency is to regard journalism as a profession, on a par with law or medicine in point of preparation demanded. As these latter have been turned over to the universities instead of allowing the youth to learn the profession in the office of an active practitioner, as formerly, so now journalism should be elevated from this ancient system.

There are a number of institutions in Illinois teaching something of journalism, as the state university. There is no institution in the state which has elevated the courses to the rank of a separate college or even school, although Columbia and Missouri each have a school of journalism with a dean at the head. The movement in this state toward an enlargement of the scope of the courses would seem to indicate that some of the Illinois universities would shortly place the journalistic courses upon a

higher plane.

The teachers of journalism in the country had become sufficiently numerous to organize the American Conference of Teachers of Journalism at Chicago in 1912.[126]

Business Education. In the third department of the industry, the business office, the progress of the school-trained man has also been rapid. In the minor clerical positions the business school graduate has long been preferred, but for the more important executive places the man who has grown up in the business is still quite largely supreme. There is only recently an awakening to the fact that the newspaper industry has grown to such proportions that an understanding of broad economic principles is essential to a proper comprehension of the newspaper industry in its relation to the business world as a whole. This sort of education is still general, not being applied to the newspaper industry in particular, although it is conceivable that it may be some day.

Business Manager Field of the Chicago Tribune says regarding the preference given men with special education, "The individual, rather than the education, is the criterion in our office. We find that many individuals who have not had vocational training, do as well as those who have had it. In general, as I say, the promotion of any individual depends upon himself and upon his efficiency. Of course we believe in education, and, as a rule, those who possess it advance more rapidly than those who do not."[127]

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[126] National Printer-Journalist Vol. 31 (1913) page 29.

[127] Letter to the author under date of February 8, 1916.

In an address delivered in 1913, Mr. Field said, in speaking of the solicitors who secure national advertising, where the competition of all other advertising mediums must be successfully met: "Among such men in the newspaper business are to be found an increasing percentage of college graduates who have been attracted to this phase of the publishing business by the good pay and the opportunity to meet and engage in a battle of wits with some of the brightest and ablest business men in the United States."

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